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LANGUAGE RIGHTS IN INTERNATIONAL HUMANITARIAN LAW

by Mala Tabory

War, more than peace, is likely to give rise to circumstances in which soldiers and civilians find themselves against their will in a setting where a foreign language is employed. In addition, they may be forced to have contact on their own territory with people using another tongue. Therefore in the context of war, the protection of basic language rights is perhaps even more crucial than in peacetime in easing the fate of those involved. One of the ways humanitarian law seeks to protect the victims of war is by guaranteeing their right to communicate in a language which they easily understand. The purpose of this study is to analyze linguistic rights in time of war.

Among the general principles of humanitarian law, from which the specific contractual rules derive and which — by virtue of their being rooted in custom — are valid at all times and for all States regardless of whether they are parties to the specific Conventions, Dr. Jean Pictet lists the principle of non-discrimination. In accordance with this common principle, “individuals shall be treated without any distinction based on race, sex, nationality, language, social standing, wealth, political, philosophical or religious opinions, or any other criteria.”¹

1. MILITARY AND RELATED PERSONNEL

1. Language of identification and records

Most of the language provisions in the 1949 Geneva Conventions are of a practical nature, allowing for the basic rights set forth therein

¹ Jean Pictet, *Humanitarian Law and the Protection of War Victims* (Leyden, A. W. Sijthoff — Geneva, Henry Dunant Institute, 1975; transl. from French, 1973), pp. 27-48, on p. 38.

to be substantiated. For example, regarding the identification of medical and religious personnel, the First and Second Geneva Conventions provide that such persons shall carry a special identity card with information proving that the bearer is entitled to the status accorded under the appropriate Convention, and that if he falls into enemy hands, he will be eligible for repatriation. This card must be "worded in the national language" of the armed forces to which he belongs.² For practical reasons, an earlier proposal which would have made it obligatory for the items listed on the identity card to appear in English and French as well as in the national language was rejected by the 1949 Geneva Diplomatic Conference for the Establishment of International Conventions for the Protection of Victims of War.³ However, as pointed out in the Commentary to the Conventions, this may still be done if desired, and countries with lesser-known languages may prefer to use a second, better-known language in addition to their own. This may also be the case for countries with more than one national language.⁴

According to the Second 1949 Geneva Convention for the Amelioration of the Condition of Wounded, Sick and Shipwrecked Members of Armed Forces at Sea, the parties to a conflict have the right to control and search hospital ships and coastal rescue craft. "As far as possible, the Parties to the conflict shall enter in the log of the hospital ship, in a language he can understand, the orders they have given the captain of the vessel."⁵ The reason behind the provision that, if circumstances permit, the belligerent should enter an order in the ship's log is to avoid any dispute regarding its meaning. Understandably such orders must be recorded in a language which is comprehensible to the vessel's captain, who will be responsible for their execution.⁶

² 1949 First Geneva Convention (hereinafter GC I), Art. 40, para 2; GC II, Art. 42, para 2.

³ See *Diplomatic Conference for the Establishment of International Conventions for the Protection of Victims of War, Geneva, 1949, Final Record of the Diplomatic Conference of Geneva of 1949* (hereinafter: 1949 Dipl. Conf. Final Record), vol. II, Sec. A (Berne, Federal Political Department), Comm. I, 19th meeting, 18 May 1949, Art. 33, pp. 93-94 (Venezuela).

⁴ Jean S. Pictet, gen. ed. *Commentary, Geneva Convention* (Geneva, ICRC, I: by Jean S. Pictet, 1952; II: by Jean S. Pictet *et al.*, 1960; III: by Jean de Preux *et al.*, 1960; IV: by O. M. Uhler and H. Coursier, 1958. (Hereinafter: J. S. Pictet, *Commentary I, II, III, IV*). *Commentary I*, p. 314, *ibid.* II, pp. 237-38.

⁵ GC II, Art. 31, para 3.

⁶ See J. S. Pictet, *Commentary II*, p. 185.

2. Language of prisoner groups

The Third 1949 Geneva Convention Relative to the Treatment of Prisoners of War lays down various provisions designed to facilitate the conditions of a prisoner of war by enabling him, on the one hand, to be grouped with people who speak his own language, and on the other hand, by ensuring that regulations and interaction with authorities employing a different language are made available to him in a language which he understands. It is necessary to distinguish between a prisoner's mother tongue, his country's official language (i.e. the language language used in his country of origin for official purposes, including official records and legislation), and any other language which he may be able to speak or understand.⁷

The Third Geneva Convention sets forth the general principle that subject to certain special provisions expressly laid down in the Convention, "all prisoners of war shall be treated alike by the Detaining Power, without any adverse distinction based on race, nationality, religious belief or political opinions, or any other distinction founded on similar criteria."⁸ As explained in the Commentary, the wording of this provision shows that the list of various criteria therein is not exhaustive and only serves as an example. Among other criteria which might be added are birth, financial circumstances, language, colour and social status.⁹ Various provisions in the Convention are designed to avoid discriminatory treatment of prisoners based on the language which they speak and their inability to speak other languages.

During the two World Wars the unified armed forces were often composed of soldiers of diverse background, and this created difficulties both for the persons taken prisoner and for the Detaining Powers. With regard to the internment of prisoners of war, the Convention provides that the detaining Power shall assemble them in camps or compounds "according to their nationality, language and customs."¹⁰ As pointed out in the Commentary, the purpose of this provision is to enable prisoners of war to converse among themselves in their common language;

⁷ See J. S. Pictet, *Commentary III*, p. 184.

⁸ GC III, Art. 16.

⁹ J. S. Pictet, *Commentary III*, p. 154.

¹⁰ GC III, Art. 22, para 3. (This Article further provides that "such prisoners shall not be separated from prisoners of war belonging to the armed forces with which they were serving at the time of their capture, except with their consent.") See *1949 Dipl. Conf. Final Record*, vol. II, Sec. A, Comm. II, 5th mtg., 29 April 1949, Art. 20 at pp. 253-54 (U.K.); also *ibid.*, 25th mtg., 6 July 1949, p. 353; Art. 20 as adopted by Drafting Committee No. 1.

it is also to facilitate the administration of the camps, or camps' sections, in which the prisoners are assembled, by the use of a single language.¹¹ The language chosen will therefore be that which is most easily spoken and understood by the prisoners of war, regardless of whether it serves as their official language. The provision of assembling prisoners according to language also applies to a group of prisoners of the same nationality where the population is composed of different language groups (e.g. Canada, Belgium and Switzerland).

Regarding the treatment of prisoners of war with officer rank, who by custom are interned in separate camps or quarters and are usually relieved of personal fatigue duties, the Third Geneva Convention provides that this work be assigned to orderlies who are detailed to the officers. Orderlies servicing officers' camps are to be taken from the "other ranks of the same armed forces who, as far as possible, speak the same language" as the officers.¹²

On the subject of prisoners' representatives — elected by the prisoners of war to represent them before the authorities — the Third 1949 Geneva Convention provides that "In all cases the prisoners' representative must have the same nationality, language and customs as the prisoners of war whom he represents. Thus, prisoners of war distributed in different sections of a camp, according to their nationality, language or customs, shall have for each section their own prisoners' representative..."¹³

It is logical that in order for the prisoners' representatives to perform their representational task adequately, they must know the language of their constituent prisoners and be in close enough contact with them to understand them and plead on their behalf if necessary.¹⁴

3. Language of communication

Certain regulations of the Third Geneva Convention form part of the general right of a prisoner of war to understand, either directly or through the services of an interpreter, any communications and instructions which affect or may affect him. This is to ensure that he will not be discriminated against due to his inability to understand the language used by those with whom he is in contact.

¹¹ J. S. Pictet, *Commentary III*, p. 184.

¹² GC III, Art. 44, para 2; see *Geneva Convention Relative to the Treatment of Prisoners of War*, 27 July 1929 (hereinafter GC 1929), Art. 22, para 1.

¹³ GC III, Art. 79, para 5.

¹⁴ J. S. Pictet, *Commentary III*, p. 394.

For example, the questioning of prisoners of war by the Detaining Power must, obviously, be carried out "in a language which they understand".¹⁵ The Commentary points out that provided the prisoner is able to understand the questions put to him, the questioning need not necessarily be carried out in his mother tongue.¹⁶

According to the Third Geneva Convention, the Convention itself, as well as its Annexes and related applicable agreements, is to be posted "in the prisoners' own language" in places where all may read them.¹⁷ At the 1949 Geneva Diplomatic Conference the primary objection voiced against the compulsory posting of the Convention related to translation difficulties.¹⁸ The stipulation of the 1929 Convention was stricter, requiring that the Convention be posted, "whenever possible, in the native language of the prisoners of war".¹⁹ According to the Commentary, the prisoners' "own language" means the official language used in that country for official records and the publication of legislation.²⁰ In cases where the country of origin recognizes more than one official language, e.g. Switzerland or Belgium, the Convention should, if possible, be posted in the language actually used by the prisoners involved.

While, according to the Convention, the detaining State is responsible for translating the texts to be posted, it is recommended in the Commentary that, at the outset of hostilities, the home State of the prisoners should forward to the Detaining Power the text of the Convention in the prisoners' own language, through the good offices of either the Protecting Power or of the ICRC. It is further recommended that as a means of disseminating the Convention rapidly in time of war, such translations be preliminarily prepared in peacetime.²¹

It is almost axiomatic that regulations must be made known to prisoners of war in a manner that they can comprehend, and it is the responsibility of the detaining State to ensure that prisoners understand orders issued. All regulations, orders, notices and publications relating to the conduct of prisoners of war "shall be issued to them in a language

¹⁵ GC III, Art. 17, para 6; see GC 1929, Art. 20.

¹⁶ J. S. Pictet, *Commentary III*, p. 164.

¹⁷ GC III, Art. 41, para 1.

¹⁸ 1949 *Dipl. Conf. Final Record*, vol. II, Sec. A, Comm. II, 8th mtg., 4 May 1949 at p. 265; see *ibid.*, 26th mtg., 6 July 1949, p. 358.

¹⁹ GC 1929, Art. 84, para I.

²⁰ J. S. Pictet, *Commentary III*, p. 244.

²¹ *Ibid.* See discussion on GC III, Art. 128, *infra* at note 82.

which they understand.”²³ It is explained in the Commentary that the right to be informed corresponds to the basic principle that no one may be punished pursuant to legislation with which he has not had an opportunity to familiarize himself, and that this right forms the basis of the prisoners’ right to lodge complaints.²³ Understanding the language involved is indispensable to the exercise of this right.

Likewise, the Third Geneva Convention requires that every order and command addressed to prisoners of war individually must be given in a language which they understand.²⁴ The Commentary poses the question whether guards may use their own language instead of the prisoners’ — provided the latter understand what is being said — for instance, in short, easily remembered, foreign commands. The answer given is that while this seems permissible if the prisoners actually understand the commands, the guards should learn basic phrases in the prisoners’ language and use an interpreter whenever possible.²⁵

The Third Geneva Convention provides that representatives or delegates of the Protecting Powers shall be able to visit and interview prisoners and their representatives “either personally or through an interpreter.”²⁶ The Commentary points out that the inspectors should have a good knowledge of the language of the detaining country as well as of the prisoners of war. While the Convention allows for the exceptional circumstances, since prisoners will only be able to express themselves clearly and freely when speaking in their own language, without intermediaries or witnesses.²⁷

4. Language of disciplinary and judicial proceedings

The procedure outlined in the Third and Fourth Geneva Conventions for cases of disciplinary offences includes the right of defence. Before the pronouncement of any disciplinary punishment, the accused prisoner of war or internee may defend himself, and, in particular, call witnesses and “have recourse, if necessary, to the services of a qualified inter-

²² GC III, Art. 41, para 2.

²³ J. S. Pictet, *Commentary III*, p. 243.

²⁴ GC III, Art. 41, para 2.

²⁵ J. S. Pictet, *Commentary III*, p. 245.

²⁶ GC III, Art. 126, para 1; see GC 1929, Art. 86, para 2.

²⁷ J. S. Pictet, *Commentary III*, pp. 607-608.

preter.”²⁸ The expression “if necessary” seems to imply that the interpreter may be used at any stage of the proceedings where he may be needed by the accused, including receiving precise information regarding the offence, the calling of witnesses and the pronouncement of the decision.

The judicial procedure prescribed for the rights and means of defence of a prisoner of war includes the services of a competent interpreter if the prisoner deems it necessary.²⁹ Unlike the 1929 Geneva Convention, the present provision specifies that it is the prisoner himself who determines whether an interpreter is necessary.³⁰ The Commentary notes that “if he deems necessary” follows automatically from the rights of defence if the language used in the detaining country is unfamiliar to the prisoner of war.

The Commentary defines a “competent” interpreter as one who not only knows both the language of the prisoner and that of the Detaining Power, but is also familiar with legal terminology and accustomed to interpreting in judicial proceedings. Normally the Detaining Power is obligated to supply the interpreter. However, if the prisoner of war prefers, he may use the services of one of his fellow-prisoners, if the latter is qualified and enjoys the confidence of the court.³¹

In the Commentary the distinction is made between a “qualified” interpreter provided for disciplinary proceedings and a “competent” interpreter provided as part of the rights and means of defence of a prisoner of war.³² These adjectives, which differ slightly in intensity, seem to have been chosen deliberately in each case. “Competent” indicates the interpreter’s capability of making a correct appraisal, while the stronger term “qualified” shows his work to be on a high standard. In the light of these definitions the Commentary finds the distinction in the Convention to be illogical, for errors by the defence in disciplinary matters may at worst result in a punishment of thirty days in confinement³³, while in judicial proceedings a prisoner of war may be liable

²⁸ GC III, Art. 96, para 4; GC IV, Art. 123, para 2. The 1929 GC did not include procedural guarantees for the defence of prisoners of war in disciplinary proceedings.

²⁹ GC III, Art. 105, para 1.

³⁰ J. S. Pictet, *Commentary III*, p. 487. See GC 1929, Art. 62, para 1, giving the prisoner of war the right “if necessary, to have recourse to the offices of a competent interpreter”, leaving it unclear who decides if an interpreter is necessary.

³¹ J. S. Pictet, *Commentary III*, p. 487.

³² J. S. Pictet, *Commentary III*, pp. 460-61.

³³ GC III, Art. 90.

to a death sentence.³⁴ The conclusion, therefore, is that the best possible conditions for his defence must be ensured.

The distinction between a qualified and competent interpreter for prisoners of war, depending on the given procedure, appears also in the authentic French text (*qualifié-compétent*). However, with regard to detained civilians, the Fourth Geneva Convention provides for the right to the services of a “qualified” interpreter in disciplinary procedures³⁵ and for the right to “be aided by an interpreter” in penal procedures. Judging from the unclear choice of adjectives in the case of prisoners of war and from the absence of any adjective for the interpreter assisting a detained civilian in penal procedures, the qualifications with regard to interpreters do not seem to imply distinct degrees of competence in the different cases.

The rules for judicial proceedings require that particulars of the charge or charges on which the prisoner of war is to be arraigned, as well as documents usually received by the accused according to the laws in force in the armed forces of the Detaining Power, “shall be communicated to the accused prisoner of war in a language which he understands, and in good time before the opening of the trial”.³⁶

With regard to any judgement and sentence pronounced upon a prisoner of war, the Third Geneva Convention provides that a summary communication thereof — including the wording of the judgment and indicating possible right of appeal — must be sent by the Detaining Power to the Protecting Power, to the prisoners’ representative, and to the accused prisoner of war “in a language he understands, if the sentence was not pronounced in his presence”.³⁷ This provision, inserted at the 1949 Diplomatic Conference, follows the wording of Article 106 of the Convention which states that “every prisoner of war shall have... the right of appeal or petition from any sentence pronounced upon him”. Whereas the wording of the French text of Articles 106 and 107 is identical (*le droit de recourir en appel, en cassation ou en révision*), the English text of Article 107 omits the word “or petition”. The Commentary points out that this is probably due to an oversight.³⁸

³⁴ GC III, Art. 100.

³⁵ GC IV, Art. 123, para 2.

³⁶ GC III, Art. 105, para 4. There was no such provision in the 1929 GC; for its introduction, see *Report on the Work of the Conference of Government Experts for the Study of the Conventions for the Protection of War Victims* (Geneva, 14-26 April 1947) ICRC, Geneva, 1947, (hereinafter *Report on... Gov. Experts*), p. 225, (2) (b).

³⁷ GC III, Art. 107, para 1.

³⁸ J. S. Pictet, *Commentary III*, p. 497.

5. Language of prisoner correspondence and other forms

Annexed to the Third Geneva Convention are several model documents, which should be made out in two or three languages. These forms include among other things:

(1) An identity card intended for persons who accompany the armed forces without actually being members thereof (e.g. war correspondents) and thus entitled to be treated as prisoners of war.³⁹ This card, which serves as proof of the authorization accorded to the bearer to accompany the forces, should be made out preferably in two or three languages, one of which is widely used internationally.

(2) A capture card to be completed by each prisoner of war immediately after being taken prisoner, or not more than a week after arrival at any camp, and each time his address is changed (by reason of transfer to a hospital or to another camp). This card, which must be sent both to the prisoner's family and to the Central Prisoners of War Agency^{39bis}, is essential for the work of the latter. It should be made out in two or three languages, particularly in the prisoner's own language and that of the Detaining Power.⁴⁰

(3) A correspondence card or letter, to be written by the prisoner of war and to be conveyed to his family by the most rapid method at the disposal of the Detaining Power. This form, which corresponds in size to the usual format for postal communications, should be made out in two or three languages, particularly in the prisoner's own language and that of the Detaining Power.⁴¹ Prisoner of war correspondence, the Third Geneva Convention provides, should generally be "written in their native language".⁴² As pointed out in the Commentary, in order for the right to correspond to be fulfilled, it is necessary for prisoners of war and their correspondents to be permitted to use a language which is familiar to them. The parties to the conflict cannot oblige prisoners of war to correspond in any language other than their mother tongue.⁴³

Although prisoners' cards and letters will usually be written in their native language, prisoners may have occasion to correspond with persons unfamiliar with that language. In such a case the Convention provides

³⁹ GC III, Art. 4, sub-para A(4) and Annex IV-A.

^{39bis} Now Central Tracing Agency.

⁴⁰ GC III, Art. 70; see Art. 123, para 2 and Annex IV-B.

⁴¹ GC III, Annex IV-C (1 and 2).

⁴² GC III, Art. 71, para 3. This provision is identical with Art. 36, para 3 of the 1929 GC.

⁴³ J. S. Pictet, *Commentary III*, pp. 349-50.

that the "Parties to the conflict may allow correspondence in other languages".⁴⁴ Such permission may be granted at the request of the prisoner of war. It is suggested in the Commentary that the prisoners' representatives seem best placed to forward such requests, both to the authorities of the Detaining Power and to the Protecting Power.⁴⁵

According to the Third Geneva Convention each prisoner of war must be allowed to send a minimum of two letters and four cards monthly. As an exceptional measure, "further limitations may be imposed only if the Protecting Power is satisfied that it would be in the interests of the prisoners of war concerned to do so owing to difficulties of translation caused by the Detaining Power's inability to find sufficient qualified linguists to carry out the necessary censorship."⁴⁶ This provision takes into account the security of the Detaining Power and the practical considerations involved in censorship. In particular, problems may arise with regard to languages which are not known in the country of detention and for which it may therefore be hard to find enough translators. For example, during World War II there were difficulties with correspondence of prisoners of war in the Far East, where censorship authorities were totally ignorant of the European languages spoken by the prisoners. If necessary the Protecting Power may be asked, presumably by the Detaining Power or the ICRC, to appoint extra censors.⁴⁷ As pointed out in the Commentary, while there may be problems in finding sufficient translators to deal with censorship in a conflict of general scope such as World War II, this is not the case when the conflict is limited and the number of prisoners relatively small.⁴⁸

(4) A death certificate, of which a model was prepared by the Central Prisoners of War Agency on the basis of its experience. This is to be used by the belligerent to forward to the information Bureau regarding

⁴⁴ GC III, Art. 71, para 3.

⁴⁵ J. S. Pictet, *Commentary III*, p. 350; see GC III, Arts. 79-81.

⁴⁶ GC III, Art. 71, para 1.

⁴⁷ J. S. Pictet, *Commentary III*, p. 375 and n. 1; p. 350 and n. 1. The provision on censorship appears in GC III, Art. 76. For a proposal to provide facilities for the censorship of correspondence written in little known languages and to make it possible for the belligerent powers to obtain additional qualified censors either from the ICRC or from neutral countries, see 1949 *Dipl. Conf. Final Records*, vol. II, Sec. A, Comm. II, 13th mtg., 16 May 1949, Art. 66, p. 288 (India). On difficulties of the ICRC in translating letters sent by prisoners of war during World War II, and reports on camp visits by ICRC delegates translated for communication to the Detaining Power, see XVIIth International Red Cross Conference, Stockholm, Aug. 1948, *Report of the ICRC on its Activities during the Second World War*, (Sept. 1, 1939-June 30, 1947), vol. I: *General Activities*, (Geneva, May 1948), p. 135.

⁴⁸ J. S. Pictet, *Commentary III*, p. 346.

all prisoners of war who die during captivity.⁴⁹ This form should be made out in two or three languages, particularly in the prisoner's own language and in that of the Detaining Power, and its format should be used as a model for lists of deceased prisoners serving as collective death certificates.

2. PROTECTED CIVILIANS

1. Language of internee groups

Many of the regulations applicable to civilian internees in occupied territories correspond *mutatis mutandis* to those relating to prisoners of war. Article 82 of the Fourth Geneva Convention Relative to Protection of Civilian Persons in Time of War provides that "the Detaining Power shall, as far as possible, accommodate the internees according to their nationality, language and customs. Internees who are nationals of the same country shall not be separated merely because they have different languages."

As pointed out in the Commentary, since conflicts may last for years there is a humanitarian duty to maintain the morale of internees and to try to alleviate the spiritual effect of internment.⁵⁰ The above-cited article corresponds to Article 22 (3) of the 1949 Geneva Prisoners of War Convention (Third Convention). However, the language of Article 82 of the Fourth Convention is less mandatory than Article 22 (3) of the Third Convention, for the qualifying phrase "as far as possible" is included only with regard to civilian internees. The explanation is that while prisoners of war naturally fall into groups of the same nationality when captured together and can automatically be grouped as such, the grouping of civilians who are often taken into custody separately and sometimes originate from places distant from one another results in practical difficulties. Therefore in some of the latter cases it is preferable to leave the internees near their families rather than to send them to a further place to be reunited with persons of the same language and nationality.

The order of priorities in the first paragraph of Article 82 makes it clear that although an effort should be made to group internees according to common features, including language, internees who are nationals of the same country but who speak different languages should not be sepa-

⁴⁹ GC III, Annex IV-D; Art. 120, para 2.

⁵⁰ J. S. Pictet, *Commentary IV*, pp. 379-80.

rated merely on that ground. Thus the "moral solidarity which unites the citizens of a particular country takes precedence over the differences which may exist between them, particularly as regards language."⁵¹

2. Language of child welfare and education

The Fourth Geneva Convention lays down child welfare measures, including the obligation on the parties to the conflict to facilitate in all circumstances the maintenance of children under the age of fifteen who are orphaned or separated from their families as a result of the war, and the exercise of their religion and their education. The latter task is to be entrusted, as far as possible, "to persons of a similar cultural tradition."⁵² In case the local authorities have not carried out their duties in this respect, the Occupying Power "shall make arrangements for the maintenance and education, if possible by persons of their own nationality, language and religion", of such homeless children.⁵³

3. Language of penal procedures

According to the Fourth Geneva Convention "the penal provisions enacted by the Occupying Power shall not come into force before they have been published and brought to the knowledge of the inhabitants in their own language."⁵⁴ Although it may appear surprising that an entire article is devoted to a seemingly obvious principle, the Commentary points out that the experience of the two World Wars shows that this principle is not always observed and the purpose of this provision is to ensure its future observance. It is not sufficient to broadcast the information, which the Occupying Power is required to publish in full in a manner not specified in the Convention.⁵⁵ The language used must be the official language of the occupied country concerned, "that is to

⁵¹ *Ibid.*, p. 380. Some delegations to the 1949 Diplomatic Conference even proposed that the grouping together of all internees from a given country be obligatory.

⁵² GC IV, Art. 24, para 1.

⁵³ GC IV, Art. 50, para 3. At the 1949 Diplomatic Conference, when the representative of Belgium suggested the insertion of the word "language" in this provision so as to ensure that children were taught in their mother tongue, he pointed out that this was particularly important for countries like Belgium which had more than one national language. (*Final Record*, vol. II, Sec. A, Comm. III (Civilians), 16th mtg., 16 May 1949, Art. 46, p. 664; see Report of Comm. III to the Plenary Assembly, *ibid.*, p. 828).

⁵⁴ GC IV, Art. 65.

⁵⁵ J. S. Pictet, *Commentary IV*, p. 338. Publication might be in the local press, in an "Official Gazette", in notices posted in public places, or by all these methods.

say the language in which the laws of the State are published".⁵⁶ In countries which have more than one official language, the Occupying Power shall follow local practice and publish the penal provision it enacts in one or more languages, in accordance with that country's pre-occupation practice concerning the publication of legislation.

According to the penal procedure to be followed in occupied territories, no sentence shall be pronounced by the competent courts of the Occupying Power except after a regular trial. The Occupying Power must promptly inform accused persons to be prosecuted of the particulars of the charges against them "in writing, in a language which they understand".⁵⁷ "Accused persons shall, unless they freely waive such assistance, be aided by an interpreter, both during preliminary investigation and during the hearing in court. They shall have at any time the right to object to the interpreter and to ask for his replacement" if due to lack of professional skill or objectivity he is no longer trustworthy.⁵⁸ As pointed out in the Commentary, the penal procedure confirms the principle applicable to penal legislation by the Occupying Power, requiring its publication in the language of the occupied territory.

4. Language of publications

The provisions on places of internment for civilian persons in times of war require that internees understand the regulations which concern them. The officer in charge of the place of internment is obligated to know the exact wording of the Fourth Geneva Convention, and therefore the Convention provides that he must have a copy in the official language of the Detaining Power he represents (or in one of the official languages if there is more than one).⁵⁹ It is not sufficient for the commandant to have a general knowledge of the Convention. Furthermore, the internees themselves must know the exact extent of their rights and duties. In addition to the general undertaking by the High Contracting Parties to disseminate the text even in peacetime, detailed provisions are enumerated with regard to the internees specifically. The persons interned must have access to the Convention, and to related special agreements, translated into a language which they understand (either to be posted or in the possession of the Internee Committee).⁶⁰ The Commentary explains that the language will usually be that of the country where

⁵⁶ *Ibid.* and n. 3.

⁵⁷ GC IV, Art. 71, para 2.

⁵⁸ GC IV, Art. 72, para 3 and J. S. Pictet, *Commentary IV*, pp. 357-58.

⁵⁹ GC IV, Art. 99, para 1.

⁶⁰ *Ibid.*, para 2.

the internees are detained, since they were presumably working and living there beforehand, but if necessary a foreign language version must be posted. Where the multiplicity of languages makes it difficult to post all the versions required, a possible solution is to give the Internee Committee a copy of the Convention or of any relevant agreements for the use of the internees and to supply required details.⁶¹

It is pointed out in the Commentary that while the Detaining Power is responsible for preparing the texts to be posted, it is desirable for the Power to which the internees owe allegiance to send the Internee Committee a copy of the Convention in the mother tongue of those detained, especially if the country has more than one official language. This should be sent through the good offices of the Protecting Power or the ICRC at the start of hostilities.⁶²

In addition to the Convention, regulations, orders, notices and publications of every kind shall be communicated to the internees and posted inside the camp "in a language which they understand". Every order and command addressed to the internees individually must, likewise, be given "in a language which they understand."⁶³

5. Language of correspondence and visits

Regarding civilian internee mail, the Fourth Geneva Convention provides—as in the case of correspondence by prisoners of war—that as a rule the letters and cards sent by the internees "shall be written in their own language. The parties to the conflict may authorize correspondence in other languages."⁶⁴ As with prisoners of war, use of the internees' mother tongue is in their own best interest, and in no case may the parties to the conflict require the use of any other language by internees for purposes of correspondence. However, the use of a different language may be necessary to overcome practical difficulties of censorship as well as to correspond with persons unfamiliar with the internees' own language. In both these instances it would seem, where practicable, to be generally in the internees' best interest to be allowed to correspond in other languages.

Like the Third Geneva Convention the Fourth gives representatives or delegates of the Protecting Powers permission to have access to

⁶¹ J.S. Pictet, *Commentary IV*, pp. 430-31.

⁶² *Ibid.*, p. 431.

⁶³ GC IV, Art. 99, para 3, 4. See 1949 Diplomatic Conference, *Final Record*, vol. II, Sec. A, Comm. III, 21st mtg., 23 May 1949, Art. 88, p. 681; *ibid.*, 32nd mtg., 17 June 1949, Art. 88, p. 726.

⁶⁴ GC IV, Art. 107, para 3; see J. S. Pictet, *Commentary IV*, p. 452.

protected persons (e.g. those who find themselves, in case of a conflict or occupation, in the hands of a party to the conflict or Occupying Power of which they are not nationals), particularly in places of internment, detention and work, and to interview them without witnesses, personally or through an interpreter.⁶⁵ According to the Commentary, if the use of an interpreter cannot be avoided, the Detaining Power must, on request, supply the delegates with the necessary interpreters.⁶⁶

3. THE 1977 PROTOCOLS

The humanitarian law provisions set forth in the 1949 Geneva Conventions have been extended by the two Protocols of 1977 relating to the Protection of Victims of International Armed Conflicts (Protocol I) and of Non-International Armed Conflicts (Protocol II), to widen the traditional concept of international conflicts⁶⁷ and to protect non-combatants in armed conflicts. The benefits of both Protocols are to apply “without any adverse distinction founded on race, colour, sex, language, religion or belief, political or other opinion, national or social origin, wealth, birth or other status, or on any other similar criteria.”⁶⁸

For all persons who are in the power of a party to an international conflict, Protocol I sets forth minimum fundamental guarantees to be enjoyed without any adverse distinction based upon the same criteria, including language. These guarantees are generally applicable to the nationals of a party to the conflict as well as to those belonging to the adversary, in its own as well as in occupied territory.

One of these guarantees is that in time of war “any person arrested, detained or interned for actions related to the armed conflict shall be informed promptly, in a language he understands, of the reasons why these measures have been taken.”⁶⁹

This important stipulation corresponds to similar provisions applicable under normal circumstances according to the 1950 European Convention on Human Rights⁷⁰ and the 1966 International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights.⁷¹

⁶⁵ GC IV, Art. 143, para 2. See Art. 4.

⁶⁶ J. S. Pictet, *Commentary IV*, p. 576.

⁶⁷ Protocol I, Art. 1, para 4.

⁶⁸ Protocol I, Art. 9, para 1; Protocol II, Art. 2, para 1.

⁶⁹ Protocol I, Art. 75, para 1 and 3.

⁷⁰ Art. 5, para 2 and Art. 6, para 3(a).

⁷¹ Art. 14, para 3(a). This instrument, upon which the provision in Protocol I seems to be based, entered into force on 23 March 1976, just prior to the adoption of the Protocols.

Of lesser import, the matter of language arises in Protocol I in a technical sense in relation to various documents. For example, the information on the card sent to the ICRC Central Tracing Agency for each evacuated child should include, *inter alia*, the child's native language, or any other languages he speaks.⁷² Annex I to Protocol I contains a single-language model of identity cards for permanent civilian medical and religious personnel. If a different model is used, presumably including a multilingual model, the parties to the conflict are required, at the outbreak of hostilities, to transmit to each other a specimen of the model used.⁷³ The same applies to identity cards of civil defence personnel.⁷⁴ On the other hand, the model identity card for journalists on dangerous professional missions annexed to Protocol I is quinquilingual (English, Arabic, Spanish, French and Russian).⁷⁵ The explanation for the preparation *ab initio* of a multilingual card is presumably that the nature of journalistic work may require the reporter to visit a variety of places employing different languages.

To the extent that the 1977 Protocols have widened the scope of humanitarian law, particularly with regard to fundamental guarantees, the minimum preservation of language rights in armed conflict has been ensured.

While admittedly the "right to language" might *prima facie* be viewed as a minor issue in wartime, an analysis of the relevant provisions in this study shows it to be a basic element in the consideration of human dignity and just treatment of people in times of armed conflict. Preoccupation with the military aspects in time of war which might lead to the violation of various rights of those involved, has necessitated a detailed formulation of the required guarantees in time of peace.

4. ADDENDUM

The following, though unrelated to language rights, deals with the actual languages of the Geneva Conventions and the implications thereof.

⁷² Art. 78, para 3(i).

⁷³ Protocol I, Annex I, Art. 1, para 2 and Fig. 1.

⁷⁴ *Ibid.*, Art. 14, para 1.

⁷⁵ Protocol I, Art. 79, para 3 and Annex II.

All four 1949 Geneva Conventions were drawn up and are equally authentic in English and French.⁷⁶ The 1929 Geneva Convention had been concluded only in French, the leading diplomatic language at that time.⁷⁷ Throughout the preparatory work and the Diplomatic Conference of 1949 French and English were recognized as "official working languages" and two versions of each Convention were drawn up simultaneously. The legal implication of the equal authenticity of the two texts is that the parties are bound by both, and that they are both valid for purposes of interpretation. The practical consequence is that on the one hand each text may help to clarify the other, but on the other hand divergences between them may lead to interpretative problems.⁷⁸ The ICRC drafts proposed that in case of divergence the French text should prevail, but this was rejected by the Diplomatic Conference. In case of divergence, Pictet states in the Commentary that "those responsible for applying the Convention will have to find out what is known in municipal law as the intention of the legislator; in the case in point, this will be the joint will of the parties represented at the Conference. The method adopted will therefore be that of legal interpretation with the help of the Final Record of the Conference and the preliminary texts."⁷⁹

Pictet adds that this procedure is generally followed in countries such as Switzerland, where national legislation is promulgated in several equally valid languages. Although multilingual interpretation is not within the scope of the present study, it must be noted that the interpretative solution embodied in Articles 31 to 33 of the 1969 Vienna Convention on the Law of Treaties, which does not follow Pictet's approach of 1952, provides guidelines which are at present valid, both as a contractual undertaking with regard to the thirty-five States which have ratified or acceded to it, and as reflection of what has come to be accepted as customary law with regard to the community of States.

In addition to the authentic texts, the 1949 Geneva Conventions provide that the Swiss Federal Council shall arrange for official translations of the Conventions to be made in the Russian and Spanish languages. As defined by the International Law Commission, an "official translation" is one prepared by the parties or an individual government

⁷⁶ GC I, Art. 55; GC II, Art. 54; GC III, Art. 133; GC IV, Art. 150.

⁷⁷ No equivalent final provisions in GC 1929; J. S. Pictet, *Commentary I*, pp. 400-402. See Mala Tabory, *Multilingualism in International Law and Institutions* (Alphen aan den Rijn: Sijthoff & Noordhoff, 1980), Ch. I.

⁷⁸ For example, the meaning conveyed by the French and English texts of GC IV, Art. 5, is not the same; see J. S. Pictet, *Commentary IV*, pp. 54-57; also in Whiteman, *Digest*, vol. X, pp. 165-67.

⁷⁹ J. S. Pictet, *Commentary I*, p. 401 and n. 1.

or by an organ of an international organization.⁸⁰ According to the Commentary, the official character of these translations derives from the fact that their source is specified in the Conventions themselves.⁸¹ Despite the official character of these translations, legally only the authentic texts are regarded as valid and correct in case of interpretation difficulties. The 1929 Geneva Convention did not provide for official translations, and the practical advantage of this innovation in the 1949 Conventions is that it avoids the production of various translations, for example, in the different Spanish-speaking countries. In addition to preparing the Russian and Spanish translations with which it was entrusted by the Convention, the Swiss Federal Council also translated the Conventions into German under obligation of Swiss law.

According to the Geneva Conventions, the High Contracting Parties shall communicate to each other through the Swiss Federal Council, and during hostilities through the Protecting Powers, the official translations of the Conventions, as well as any laws and regulations which they may adopt to ensure their application.⁸² Unlike the official translations into Russian and Spanish specifically mentioned in the Conventions, the official translations referred to in this provision are defined in the Commentary as "those drawn up by the executive authorities in a country under the terms of their own law."⁸³ Therefore, in countries recognizing more than one national language there may be several translations to communicate. Due to their respective special status referred to above, the English, French, Russian and Spanish versions would not be included in this expression.

In line with contemporary international practice, the two 1977 Protocols additional to the Geneva Conventions are authentic in Arabic, Chinese, English, French, Russian and Spanish.⁸⁴

Dr Mala Tabory

Faculty of Law, Tel Aviv University

⁸⁰ *Y.B.I.L.C.* (1966-II), p. 224, para 1.

⁸¹ J. S. Pictet, *Commentary I*, pp. 401-402 and n. 2.

⁸² GC I, Art. 48; GC II, Art. 49; GC III, Art. 128; GC IV, Art. 145.

⁸³ J. S. Pictet, *Commentary IV*, p. 582.

⁸⁴ Protocol I, Art. 102; Protocol II, Art. 28.

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The International Committee of the Red Cross (III)

by André Durand

9

THE SEARCH FOR PRINCIPLES

The founders of the Red Cross did not seek to establish their work on the elements of a doctrine. They referred to a concept of the world which was common to them all and which did not appear to need any explanation. They were impelled by the emotions which Henry Dunant's revelations and proposals had raised in them. Their purpose was to "*take into serious consideration the idea proposed in the conclusions of the book entitled "A Memory of Solférino", namely the foundation of Societies for the Relief of Wounded Soldiers and the addition of a corps of medical volunteers to the belligerent armies*", and their concern was "how" to put that idea into practice rather than "why". It is true that those conclusions contained in embryo a whole set of guiding principles which were not formally stated until much later; but they appeared then as a necessary condition for the application of the initial decisions rather than as their source.

The founders were themselves guided by their religious feeling, which they held to be one of the sources of the brotherhood of man. They felt that the Red Cross had to promote not only the material but also the moral advance of mankind.

But though this religious feeling appeared as a motive force for the founders of the Red Cross movement, it did not have any influence on its practical work, which contained no reference to any theological or metaphysical considerations:

“For a benevolent association born in the heart of Europe in the nineteenth century, one could not go far wrong in assuming that religious feeling was the primary force that urged on the men who were associated in that undertaking...

*But it must be recognized that the founders of the Red Cross did not give it the imprint of any particular religion and that in their efforts to make it more widely known they never put forward any arguments which might not have been acceptable to everyone: they only made use of those which all enlightened and noble-hearted persons would have approved and which were compatible with all beliefs. Consequently, although a cross does indeed figure on the flag displayed in 1863, that emblem must be considered to be neutral in religion as well as in politics.”*¹

Gustave Moynier, seeking to analyse the reasons for the success of the Red Cross movement, referred to the trend of the ideas of the time which stemmed from Christian charity as much as from the teachings of the eighteenth century philosophers and constituted a fertile soil for the development of the Red Cross, by spreading among peoples the notions of compassion, fraternity and equality.

The founders were working in an epoch in which the general climate of thought heralded the great social and philanthropic movements of the latter half of the nineteenth century. In 1862, the same year that saw the publication of *A Memory of Solferino*, Victor Hugo published *Les Misérables* and Dostoievski *The House of the Dead*. These three memorable books exposed and stigmatized three grievous wrongs: War, Want and Penal Servitude.

* * *

This does not mean that the founders of the Red Cross did not make any attempts to clarify certain general principles or certain motivating forces which gave the movement its particular character and impetus. The first was the “*international and sacred principle*” of the neutralization of the army medical services and the protection of the wounded, the corner-stone of the first Convention and, in a wider sense, of the whole of that part of international humanitarian law providing for the protection of persons who do not take part in combat. To this prin-

¹ Gustave MOYNIER, *Les causes du succès de la Croix-Rouge*. Extract from the proceedings of the Academy of Moral and Political Sciences, Paris, 1888, p. 5.

ciple was added the rule of equality, leading to the dispensation of medical care equally to all the wounded, of whatever nationality they might be.

Nevertheless, Gustave Moynier, during the forty-six years in which he directed the fortunes of the International Committee, did try to enunciate a number of rules which would be valid for all National Societies. It was not so much that he was seeking to invest the movement with moral or spiritual foundations, which he considered were evident enough. It was rather to prevent the dispersion of the National Societies' efforts and, since they were entirely free to govern themselves, to encourage them to seek in their own culture the causes that impelled them to join, and to propose at least a number of standard rules which would preserve the unity of the movement. These rules foreshadowed those principles which today are called the organic principles: centralization, or unity of leadership; foresight, an essential quality of the Red Cross which, as was said at the first Geneva Conference, must prepare in peace-time in order to bring assistance in time of war; reciprocity, which calls for the wounded to be cared for without any distinction of nationality; and solidarity, prompting neutral Societies to offer their services to the National Societies of belligerent countries.

The role of the ICRC in formulating the fundamental principles was confirmed by the mandate it received from the Fourth International Red Cross Conference (Karlsruhe, 1887): to notify the constitution of new National Societies "*after having verified the bases on which they were established*". In order to carry out its mandate, the ICRC enumerated the rules to be followed by the National Societies wishing to gain admission to what was at the time called the "*Universal Alliance of the Red Cross*". One could perceive, in the conditions for recognition listed at that period by the ICRC, some of the principles already expressed, and anticipate those which would be stated later on: unity of the Red Cross in every country; centralization; non-discrimination; auxiliary service; foresight; solidarity between the National Societies.

* * *

After the First World War, the ICRC sought to define more strictly its role in maintaining the fundamental principles and to clarify them. This it did in the statutes it adopted in 1921 and which were confirmed by the International Conference meeting that same year:

“to maintain the fundamental principles of the Red Cross, namely: impartiality, political, religious and economic independence, universality of the Red Cross and equality between National Societies”, and also “to recognize any newly established or reconstituted National Society in conformity with the principles of the Geneva Convention...”

The ICRC had understood the necessity to specify more precisely what were its functions, taking into account those which the newly-created League of Red Cross Societies had decided to assume. It had realized also that attention had to be paid in the immediate post-war period to the problems caused by the re-constitution of certain Red Cross Societies and to the question of their representativeness.

With Max Huber as President, speculation on the Red Cross doctrine took an upward turn, although it is true that that eminent jurist did not dissociate theory from action:

*“The Red Cross was not fashioned out of a beautiful but abstract ethical idea, nor was it first thought out and debated at a congress; it came to life on the battlefield of Solferino, born of an urgent and actual necessity, and the people who created it did so, in its most literal sense, with their own hearts and hands. The Red Cross lives and will live on with the help rendered in such fashion.”*¹

But Max Huber also believed that an action which was not directed by a doctrinal conception of its aims would tend to get dispersed or would disintegrate, and that it was necessary to keep it on the right track by pondering unceasingly on its motivations and objectives. He discussed this theme in several of his books, for example in *The Good Samaritan* and *Principles of action of the International Committee and foundations of the work of the Red Cross*.

In this last study, Max Huber summarizes all the experience he had accumulated during the seventeen years he was President of the ICRC, in particular during the Second World War. As the title suggests, he primarily sets down there the fruit of his considerations on the action of the ICRC; but the conclusions he reaches are of course relevant to the whole of the movement. He underlines the elements which characterize

¹ Max HUBER, *The Idea of the Red Cross Today*, in *The Red Cross Principles and Problems*, Geneva. First printed in French in the *Revue internationale de la Croix-Rouge*, Geneva, December 1934.

the first Geneva Convention: the principles of *active relief work*, and of *absolute impartiality*, both of which are founded upon the *respect of the human person*. From these general principles stem, according to Max Huber, ICRC impartiality, its role in the maintenance of the fundamental principles of the Red Cross, its role in the formation of humanitarian law, the principle of universality, its apolitical character, its straightforwardness in action—which precludes dubious, clandestine or tortuous methods, even were they employed to humanitarian ends, and even were they employed for persons or institutions who would not abide by such methods. These concepts, valid for the ICRC in wartime, are just as valid, in the author's eyes, in all circumstances:

“The safeguard of the principles of humanity in wartime depends, to a very large extent on whether they have taken root in men's conscience already in peacetime”.

* * *

After the Second World War, the Red Cross sought to define more accurately the principles it had taken as its guidelines. It wished to maintain a steady policy towards the ideologies seeking its favours and also to define the specific character of its doctrine and the difference which separate it from other international bodies whose aims also were the defence, well-being and development of the human person.

In 1946, the Board of Governors of the League met at Oxford and issued an important declaration which added to the principles adopted earlier a number of fundamental principles and rules of application. It is these principles which are referred to in the Regulations for the admission of new Societies to the League of Red Cross Societies, while the conditions for the recognition of new Societies — which are submitted to the ICRC for examination — refer to the *“fundamental principles of the Red Cross as formulated by the International Red Cross Conference”*.

These various texts, each in their own way expressing the same ideas, group under a single title abstract principles, rules for action, methods of administration and objectives. Together they represent more a programme of activities than a doctrine.

* * *

In the course of the next few years, after having conducted a thorough analysis of its activity during the Second World War and of the new expansion of international humanitarian law in the *Report of the Inter-*

national Committee of the Red Cross on its activities during the Second World War and in the *Commentary to the Geneva Conventions of 12 August 1949*, the ICRC sought to elaborate a corpus of principles that at the same time would express the motive force of the Red Cross movement and would serve as a common ethical code.

The writings of Professor Jean Pictet, Vice-President of the ICRC, opened up new aspects of those studies, by subjecting the principles so far selected to constructive analysis and incorporating them in a structured doctrine. In his *Red Cross Principles* Jean Pictet made a major distinction between the *fundamental principles*, which give the Red Cross its essential character and express its *raison d'être*, and the *organic principles*, which concern the structure of the institution and the way it works. He distinguished seven fundamental principles, at the head of which he set the principle of humanity, the essence of the institution, "*its ideal, its motives and its aims*". He defined the abstract notions which together constitute and describe the character of the Red Cross doctrine:

*"This doctrine forms a coherent system, the various parts of which are as interdependent as the stones of a building. Similarly, it is acceptable to all men, whatever their outlook and conception of life. Indeed, accepted by the mind as much as by the heart, the Red Cross is not a creed opposed to other creeds, but an ideal which, in the field of mutual aid, inspires practical solutions adapted to man's requirements. It is not a new religion or a special philosophy, but an attitude which fits in with all religions and all philosophies".*¹

On the basis of this study, a working committee set up by the International Red Cross Standing Commission prepared a draft in which the principles were systematically set down. The draft was examined by the Council of Delegates, at a meeting in Prague (1961), and the final text was adopted by the Twentieth International Red Cross Conference (Vienna, 1965) under the heading "*Proclamation of the Fundamental Principles of the Red Cross*". The Vienna Proclamation set forth seven *fundamental* principles, to which were associated a number of principles considered as *organic* or *derived*.² They may be defined as follows:

¹ Jean S. PICTET, *Red Cross Principles*, preface by Max Huber, ICRC, Geneva, 1956, p. 10.

² *The Fundamental Principles of the Red Cross, Commentary*, by Jean Pictet, Henry Dunant Institute, Geneva, 1979.

Humanity—The Red Cross, born of a desire to bring assistance without discrimination to the wounded on the battlefield, endeavours—in its international and national capacity—to prevent and alleviate human suffering wherever it may be found. Its purpose is to protect life and health and to ensure respect for the human being. It promotes mutual understanding, friendship, co-operation and lasting peace amongst all peoples.

Impartiality—It makes no discrimination as to nationality, race, religious beliefs, class or political opinions. It endeavours only to relieve suffering, giving priority to the most urgent cases of distress.

Neutrality—In order to continue to enjoy the confidence of all, the Red Cross may not take sides in hostilities or engage at any time in controversies of a political, racial, religious or ideological nature.

Independence—The Red Cross is independent. The National Societies while auxiliaries in the humanitarian services of their Governments and subject to the laws of their respective countries, must always maintain their autonomy so that they may be able at all times to act in accordance with Red Cross principles.

Voluntary service—The Red Cross is a voluntary relief organisation not prompted in any manner by desire for gain.

Unity—There can be only one Red Cross Society in any one country. It must be open to all. It must carry on its humanitarian work throughout its territory.

Universality—The Red Cross is a world-wide institution in which all Societies have equal status and share equal responsibilities and duties in helping each other.

* * *

The principles adopted by the Red Cross to define its doctrine are today the corner-stone of the institution. They constitute, too, a set of standards which can be referred to whenever it is desired to see whether a new activity which the Red Cross is considering is consistent with its doctrine. Any action which diverges from these principles would not lie within its sphere of activity.

The Red Cross does not claim, outside its own specific activities, to impose its own concept of the relations which should exist among men or of the character of the institutions they create. In fact, it is indeed when the ideals proclaimed by the Red Cross are least known that its presence is most necessary. It may be said, however, that the principles which direct its thought and its action form the elements of an ethical code which postulates the pre-eminence of the human person, demands that it be respected and proclaims its dignity, and that those principles propose a pattern for a society in which the concepts of universality, equality and non-discrimination may be applied.

10

THE PREVENTION OF WAR

Those who endeavour to alleviate the ills caused by war must sooner or later ask themselves if they have not embarked on a never-ending task and whether, as they tend the wounded, they should not at the same time direct their attention to the elimination of war altogether.

That is the objective which today the Red Cross seeks. It is the result of a lengthy process of thought and study which has changed the attitude of the Red Cross towards war over a period of more than a hundred years. It is only gradually, or more precisely by a series of changes thrust upon it by two world wars, that the Red Cross has made efforts to link to its plans for the mitigation of the ills of war a programme for the promotion of peace.

For all those who refuse to be satisfied with merely comforting phraseology, that is not an easy undertaking. The struggle against war may be conducted with a degree of efficiency only by making a scientific study of the "war phenomenon"¹ in all its complexity. It requires a clear-headed intervention in a field which States and organized groups claim to be under their sole authority, as the intangible sign of their sovereignty. That struggle sometimes comes up against a basic reality which has existed throughout the ages, namely that the notion of freedom,

¹Gaston BOUTHOU, *Les Guerres, Eléments de polémologie*, Payot, Paris, 1951.

whether of a nation or of an individual, contains within it the seeds of possible violence.

However, in a situation which had become intolerable, it was inevitable that the Red Cross, as it had done in the sphere of protection and assistance, should seek to extend its range of action and to fight against war, but without renouncing its neutrality and without depriving itself of the means to mitigate the suffering caused by war.

For the scope of this evolution to be better understood, it may be divided into three main phases:

- Until the First World War: the *realist* phase. War was “*one of the forms of evil in the world*”, it was “*collective wickedness on a large scale*.”¹

This was recognized and deplored, and the role of the Red Cross was to alleviate the pernicious effects of war and bring charity right onto the field of battle.

- From the First to the Second World War: the *idealist* phase. By encouraging understanding among peoples, combating disease and suffering, and spreading the spirit of peace, the Red Cross was making its contribution to the prevention of war.
- After the end of the Second World War: the search for *practical action*. The Red Cross had to define its aims in participating in the struggle against war and set itself a specific programme.

* * *

In his book, “*A Memory of Solferino*”, Henry Dunant paid attention to the consequences of war, the suffering caused by war, rather than to war itself. It was not that he approved of war, or accepted it; but finding that *the state of mind of the people in Europe was such that there was a likelihood of wars taking place at some time in the future*, Dunant thought that the most pressing task was to protect the victims. He had not yet developed his thought to its conclusion, to a fundamental pacifism, and to the absolute condemnation of war and of militarism which he was to express later in his memoirs.

Dunant's colleagues on the *International Committee for Relief to Wounded Soldiers* adopted a similar attitude. Their aim was not to ban

¹ Dr Louis APPIA, *Rapport sur sa mission dans le Schleswig*, Communication du Comité international de secours aux militaires blessés, Genève, 1864.

war, but to prevent or to alleviate the sufferings which it brought in its wake. In his opening address to the Geneva Conference of 1863, General Dufour, while paying tribute to the efforts of peace congresses, did not think there was much likelihood that they would put an end to all conflicts: "*Therefore, rather than chase the dream of war's elimination we should, in order to be really useful to society, endeavour to render the consequences less terrible...*" It is true that, as he was speaking to the representatives of States who had come to Geneva to discuss ways and means of improving the efficiency of the military medical services, the first chairman of the Conference could hardly tell them that peace was soon at hand.

Nevertheless, the International Committee soon found that it had to take a stand on the problem of war. Was there not a contradiction in introducing humanitarian rules in war, without expressing an opinion on the legitimacy of what was after all a resort to violence? On this point, the attitude of the members of the International Committee was clear. They condemned war and thought that the efforts of the partisans of peace and those of the Red Cross were complementary, each contributing in its own way to the prevention of war.¹ But they had chosen to devote themselves to the alleviation of the victims' sufferings, an undertaking which could be immediately put into practice, while the establishment of peace was, in their opinion, still a distant possibility. They did not, therefore, attempt to combine those two tasks which, in the Europe of the latter half of the nineteenth-century, would probably have required quite different lines of approach.

But they did not consider that, in mitigating the ills of war, and in getting nations to accept rules of law, they were conferring legitimacy on war. On the contrary, Gustave Moynier proclaimed that war was "*a relic of barbaric times that had to be rooted out, it was not like the germ of a plant which had be tutored*". Never, he said, would the conscience of mankind come to terms with war. And he concluded with the statement: "*A civilized war is an absurdity*".²

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¹ Gustave MOYNIER, *Les causes du succès de la Croix-Rouge*, Paris, 1888, p. 15.

² Gustave MOYNIER, *Essai sur les caractères généraux des lois de la guerre*, Genève, 1895, p. 45.

It should not be forgotten that the founders of the Red Cross were nationals of a neutral State, whose permanent neutrality had been guaranteed by the great European Powers. Of course, this neutrality, brought about by historical and geographical circumstances particular to Switzerland, did not present a general solution to the problem of war. At least, it allowed the members of the *International Committee for Relief to Wounded Soldiers*, to view war as a phenomenon alien to their convictions, and in which they became involved only to relieve suffering.

Besides, right from the beginning, the Red Cross barred from its means of action any resort to force. Although the principle of non-violence was not expressed, it was one of the institution's characteristics. The entire development of Red Cross thought and action never departed from this precept which was thus conducive to the promotion of peace. This attitude of non-violence is, together with the protection of the individual against gross injustice and suffering, one of the characteristic traits of the Red Cross enabling it to diversify its action while remaining true to its origins.

* * *

After the First World War, it became clear that the Red Cross could not remain satisfied with the traditional benevolent works it performed during hostilities and that it was necessary for it to grapple with the causes of wars in order to prevent, if possible, their recurrence. At the time when the League of Nations was founded, when President Wilson's fourteen points seemed to herald an era of peace, and when the National Red Cross Societies joined to form a federation that was to direct their activities towards assistance in time of peace, the Red Cross placed the maintenance of peace in the forefront of its concerns. The first International Red Cross Conference which met after the war (Geneva, 1921) called upon the ICRC and the League to "*address an appeal to all peoples to combat the spirit of war which is still rife throughout the world*". Later, and until 1934, at every subsequent International Red Cross Conference and at every assembly of the League, resolutions were adopted calling upon the Red Cross world to continue the struggle for peace.

The Red Cross based its approach to the question of peace on the postulate that the spread of the spirit of peace and mutual understanding among nations was essential for the maintenance of peace and that

the Red Cross world, by virtue of its universal nature and its role in the alleviation of suffering, constituted a favourable element for bringing nations closer to each other. It was therefore for the Red Cross to work "within the framework of its functions", for the prevention of all wars and to consider that one of its prime duties was the moral combat and propaganda against war.

Actually, the means available to the Red Cross for its fight against war were singularly small. There were certainly hopes that the indirect action of the Red Cross against war might lead to a kind of moral disarmament and would have a long-term influence for peace. But such hopes were belied by events. Ethical values weigh but little when the vital interests of nations are at stake. From 1934 until the Second World War, the Red Cross refrained from making any concrete move in favour of peace.

Nonetheless, although it is not evident that the efforts of the Red Cross in this domain have had any practical effect, one should not underestimate the part such efforts played in the moulding of the Red Cross attitude towards the promotion of peace. They represented an initial approach, which was not then based on any systematic analysis but which opened the way to future investigation. The Red Cross, in stating that in its work in search of peace it did not move away from the path laid down by its founders but that it was "*in complete harmony with the spirit and tradition of the institution*", replied to those who criticized it for having implicitly accepted the inevitability of war, and it showed that its vocation of charity, which had led it to work at first "in war", and later "in peace", would lead it inevitably to work "for peace".

Furthermore, in its enumeration of the means by which it was hoping to reach a situation of permanent peace, the Red Cross tacitly indicated that it rejected the idea of a conqueror's imposed peace; the peace envisaged by the Red Cross was one based upon mutual understanding between nations, the personal beliefs of individuals and the respect of their rights.

The first Nobel Peace Prize was awarded in 1901 jointly to Henry Dunant and to the French philanthropist Frédéric Passy. The Norwegian Parliament's Nobel Committee later twice awarded its Peace Prize to the ICRC, in 1917 and in 1944, and once more in 1963 when the ICRC and the League of Red Cross Societies were jointly awarded this distinction.

At the ceremony in Oslo on 10 December 1945, the ICRC President, Max Huber, spoke of the essential link which, in his view, existed between “*constructive peace*” and assistance to war victims:

“No organization set up to ensure peace among nations can last unless it draws its inspiration from active solidarity among men, an idea which the Red Cross is anxious to preserve even in the darkest hours of humanity.”

* * *

As the Red Cross continued after the Second World War to seek an approach to the problem of peace, it wished to avoid repeating the idealist declarations which people justifiably thought had not made any significant contribution to the preservation of peace. Even more impelling was the fact that while the world conflict was terminated war was starting again in many different countries, forming a belt of localized wars around the earth and at the same time the cold war was splitting the nations into two ideological blocs. The Red Cross, therefore, began to seek more efficient modes of action. But there was no easy solution, for both the maintenance of peace and the prevention of war called essentially for measures of a political nature, which the Red Cross was neither able nor willing to take.

The struggle for peace was to be frequently associated with the demand to ban the use and testing of atomic weapons. Just after the war, the ICRC appealed to the Powers to hold back such weapons in reserve, if they could not be totally rejected, “*as an ultimate guarantee against war*”, or what could be called today a deterrent weapon. Later, the ICRC was given a mandate by International Red Cross Conferences to draft a set of rules for the limitation of the use of weapons with indiscriminate effects, including atomic weapons. The draft was submitted to the International Conference in New Delhi in 1957, but it did not lead to any positive results. Problems relating to the development of nuclear weapons, like the problems of disarmament, have too many political aspects and non-governmental bodies can do nothing except voice their wishes.

The *Declaration on Peace*, drafted by the League Board of Governors and adopted by the Seventeenth International Red Cross Conference (Stockholm, 1948) after the war, was very much like the joint appeal for peace by the ICRC and League of Red Cross Societies in 1921.

It contained the usual emotional sentiments that were to be found in Red Cross pacifist declarations: peace was built in the hearts and minds of men by deeds prompted by mutual sympathy, understanding and respect for their fellow-men; Red Cross activities were practical, constructive measures in the cause of peace; the work of the National Societies in the field of hygiene, the Junior Red Cross programmes, international co-operation among sister Societies, all contribute towards the elimination of some of the causes of war. However, the Declaration on Peace did introduce a new concept which was to become an essential element of the *Programme of Action of the Red Cross for Peace*: "Peace is not simply the absence of a state of war".

From that time, international Red Cross meetings systematically referred to peace as one of the institution's objectives. To obtain peace, they mentioned in particular the peace-making role of assistance and protection activities, the advantages of co-operation and understanding between peoples, with the addition all the same of more constructive proposals. An important innovation was introduced at the Vienna International Conference: the ICRC was invited to undertake, in liaison with the United Nations and within the framework of its humanitarian mission, every effort likely to contribute to the prevention of possible armed conflicts, and to be associated, in agreement with the States concerned, with any appropriate measures to that end. For the first time, the ICRC was empowered to take practical action with a view to the prevention, not only of war in general, but of specific conflicts. Following the Vienna Conference, two round table meetings attended by representatives of National Societies, the League and the ICRC were organized in 1967 and 1969. These were clearly influenced by sociological studies on war, which had been initiated after the world conflagration, and by the investigations carried out by various institutes specializing in research on war. New questions were discussed: world population explosion as a cause of conflicts and the possible role of the Red Cross in birth control programmes; aid for Third World development; measures to counter warlike and xenophobic propaganda; development of contacts with institutes conducting research into problems of war and peace; the role of the ICRC and National Societies in the event of conflict or the threat of conflict.

The Red Cross world accordingly sought to elaborate a complete doctrine that would enable it to play a positive role in the struggle for

peace. The International Conference held at Istanbul in 1969 urged that study groups should be set up to seek practical ways of enabling the Red Cross to participate more effectively in the safeguarding of peace, and recommended that the ICRC should examine with the National Societies what contribution the Red Cross could make towards preventing the outbreak of a conflict or achieving a ceasefire. In 1973, the League Board of Governors at Teheran recommended that a Red Cross Conference be convened to study the role and the activities of the Red Cross to promote peace and suggested that an Organizing Committee be set up to make the preparations for the conference.

* * *

The Organizing Committee's work, in which representatives of the League, ICRC, Henry Dunant Institute and fourteen National Societies took part, led to the convening of the *World Red Cross Conference on Peace* at Belgrade, from 11 to 13 June 1975, the first to be held by the Red Cross on this theme exclusively.

The final document drafted by the conference under the title, *Programme of Action of the Red Cross as a Factor of Peace*, and the interpretative texts that supplemented it in 1977¹, are today the working documents of the Red Cross in this field. In its preamble, the *Programme of Action* stressed that the Red Cross must make constant efforts to safeguard and strengthen peace, and to combat forces violating or threatening it, and it went on to develop the definition of peace which had been outlined in the *Declaration on Peace* adopted by the Seventeenth International Red Cross Conference (Stockholm, 1948):

"The Red Cross does not view peace simply as the absence of war, but rather as a dynamic process of co-operation among all States and peoples; co-operation founded on freedom, independence, national sovereignty, equality, respect of human rights, as well as a fair and equitable distribution of resources to meet the needs of peoples."

The Programme of Action took up and developed the traditional themes on the peace-making value of Red Cross activities related to solidarity, to legal protection and to relief to war victims' sufferings.

¹ Council of Delegates, Bucharest, 1977.

It proposed to the national and international Red Cross bodies the adoption of specific objectives to increase their co-operation in assistance, to amplify international humanitarian law and to strengthen its application and dissemination.

The programme specified two further kinds of activity where Red Cross institutions could make a more direct contribution to the prevention of war and the maintenance of peace. One was by asking the ICRC and the Red Cross bodies to take constructive measures, where necessary in close co-operation with the United Nations, to prevent the outbreak of hostilities or help to bring about a cease-fire or cessation of hostilities; the other was by proposing the essential points of a systematic programme to promote peace, especially active co-operation with scientific institutions undertaking research on peace, the struggle against racism and racial discrimination, the establishment of bodies specialized in peace research, and the implementation of programmes and plans of development, education of youth and dissemination for the promotion of peace.

* * *

The Red Cross has now passed one stage further in its search for ways to prevent war. It would like to adopt a more active role, in which its world-wide organization, its moral force and its ideals could be used to advance the cause of peace.

It must be acknowledged that the Red Cross has only limited means at its disposal for action in this field. The organization and maintenance of peace are specifically political tasks. A body or an ideology with no power behind it may perhaps play a conciliatory or a moderating role in the sequence of events leading to or preventing a conflict situation, but it will find it much more difficult to have any decisive say in the matter.

The Red Cross, however, can undoubtedly take—and has, indeed, taken in the past—an active part in the promotion of peace, principally by attempting to divest war of its mythical quality and of its spurious reputation, by contesting the eminent position granted it in the history of nations and, in contrast, by setting co-operation and understanding among people as one of its unchallengeable objectives. But there are limits to this patiently conducted campaign: the disarmament of minds

is certainly one of the necessary conditions for the prevention of war, but it is not alone sufficient.

In this sphere, the educational role of the Red Cross is undoubtedly of considerable significance. It should not be forgotten that for a very long time the teaching of history has been primarily focused on military, political and social events without any reference to the Red Cross. To remedy this lack, the ICRC and League prepared a teaching guide¹ containing material for teachers in most countries of the world. The aim was to help teachers introduce into the school curricula the salient facts of the Red Cross—its history, institutions, ideology and goals. This may well be one of the most striking achievements in the world of education, in that it introduces a new subject of universal significance, which is the same for all people, while usually the curricula are centred on national characteristics. Nonetheless, to be of any real value, this new departure will call for great perseverance and authority, for it is in the nature of man that his attention is gripped and his sense of emulation and enthusiasm excited by tales of mighty conquests, as exemplified, in the words of Henry Dunant, in the “rapacious and savage battles for empires waged by Alexander and the Caesars, by Charlemagne and Bonaparte”², while the patient, persevering, and sometimes monotonous struggle of an institution pitting reason against force, and moderation against violence, goes practically unheeded.

* * *

At all events, the Red Cross, in this domain, has gone through an inevitable evolution, marked, as in most of its actions, by the changes that have taken place in the civilization to which it belongs. When wars were merely a succession of pitched battles, the founders of the Red Cross were right in concentrating their efforts on the alleviation of the sufferings and hardship they caused. After the First World War, the hope to see the disputes settled by negotiation or arbitration, at a time when what had been then named the “spirit of Geneva” reigned over men’s minds, led the Red Cross quite naturally to be in favour of an idealistic concept of peace. Today, the problem is wholly different.

¹ *The Red Cross Teaching Guide.*

² Henry DUNANT, *L’avenir sanglant*, Henry Dunant Institute, Editions L’Age d’homme, p. 176.

War appears to have escaped man's control and to have become a phenomenon of which he is but the instrument. In its worst form, war could prevent the normal performance of humanitarian assistance. It therefore behoves the Red Cross, which was born of a cry of protest at the sight of men suffering on the field of battle, to go back to the cause of those sufferings and, so that they should not become irremediable, to make its own contribution to the prevention of war, as a logical continuation of its vocation.

CONCLUSION

Throughout this study, we have stressed the essential aspects of ICRC action and thought, and its peculiarities distinguishing it from other institutions which have also as their objective the defence or the protection of the human person, but pursue that same goal along different paths. We have followed the progress of its evolution, impelled by the interaction of events and doctrine, and we have seen how every initiative of the ICRC can be the origin of a new development in law, and how, conversely, every advance made by the law opens to the ICRC further possibilities for action.

This development and the corresponding evolution of the Red Cross are the fruit of experience and trials over the past one hundred and twenty years. It is certain that over such a long period of time, marked by so many political, technological and social upheavals, there have been few institutions whose advance has been so constant and irreversible and who, while remaining closely knit, have preserved their character of universality. In the first place, this universality is of worldwide application; it seeks to extend Red Cross action to every nation, and to every circumstance corresponding to its objectives. Secondly, its universality is of participation, and allows all persons, without distinction of any kind, to embrace its principles and co-operate in its work.

Of course, it may be assumed that, to obtain worldwide acceptance, overcoming the diversities of cultures, ideologies, traditions and degrees of technical development which characterize the community of nations, any programme of action must take into account those differences and

must be presented as a sort of common denominator for all beliefs and all philosophies. Similarly, if the provisions of the Conventions are to be ratified and applied, they have to be the object of a *consensus* on the maximum acceptable to each one.

This does not mean that the character of universality may be gained only by granting concessions. The Red Cross must single out that which is common to all mankind, and eliminate the particularisms so as to retain only the general characters, in order to educe, in the diversity of nations, that which draws them closer together, and so to disclose what peoples have in common when their dissimilarities are set aside.

One could understand, accordingly, that for the Red Cross to avoid any deviations or splits, it was essential to guide it by the establishment of a doctrine and principles that would keep it in the right direction. As Max Huber wrote, *"it is by their adherence to spiritual values that institutions are able to live, subsist and enter into history, throughout the transformations imposed upon them by the passing of time and despite their wish to adapt themselves to new conditions"*.

But we have also seen that it is only in its practical applications that the ICRC justifies itself and fulfils itself. Its elaborate system for thought and juridical construction has meaning only if it succeeds in improving the condition of a human being. It is therefore not surprising to find when one examines the historical development of the ICRC, that its action preceded the law, that practical measures carried along the doctrine and that the ICRC insisted on the recognition of its right of initiative in all circumstances: for it is by its practical achievements that it justifies its existence.

André Durand

INTERNATIONAL COMMITTEE OF THE RED CROSS

Crown Prince and Princess of Norway visit the ICRC and the League

While in Geneva, Crown Prince Harald and Princess Sonja of Norway visited the headquarters of the ICRC and the League of Red Cross Societies on 10 June 1981.

After being welcomed by President Alexandre Hay, accompanied by members and directors of the ICRC, they were informed about the institution's activities. They then signed the Visitors' Book and visited the ICRC Central Tracing Agency.

At the League they were received by Secretary-General Henrik Beer and his colleagues, who explained the activities of the world Red Cross Federation in the development of National Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies, in assistance to the victims of natural disasters, and in aid of young people and the disabled.

President of Venezuela visits ICRC

The President of the Republic of Venezuela, Mr. Luis Herrera Campins, came to the headquarters of the ICRC, on 12 June 1981, accompanied by Mrs. de Herrera Campins and their suite. They were welcomed by ICRC President Mr. Alexandre Hay. The members of the Committee, the directors of the ICRC and Mr. Henrik Beer, Secretary-General of the League of Red Cross Societies, were presented to the presidential couple.

After signing the Visitors' Book, President Herrera conferred privately with Mr. Hay, while Mrs. de Herrera Campins and the presidential retinue were informed about ICRC activities. They saw also an exhibition on activities of the Central Tracing Agency.

Declaration of succession of the Solomon Islands to the Geneva Conventions

On 6 July 1981 the Solomon Islands deposited with the Swiss Government instruments containing its declaration of succession to the Four Geneva Conventions of 12 August 1949 for the protection of war victims, pursuant to the previous ratification of those Conventions by the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland.

Following this declaration the Solomon Islands became a Party to the Geneva Conventions on 7 July 1978, the date of its independence.

The Solomon Islands is the 149th State to become party to the Geneva Conventions.

Death of Dr. R. Käser

The Red Cross learned with great sorrow of the sudden death of a long-time friend and colleague, Dr Reinhold Käser, M. D., who passed away in Berne on 29 June 1981, at the age of seventy-one.

After studying at the Universities of Geneva, Zurich, Kiel and Berne, Dr Käser practised in Solothurn and then in Berne from 1943 to 1960. He is the author of several books on medicine.

From 1954 to 1958 he held the post of chief medical officer of the Swiss Red Cross. He organized basic first aid and life saving courses, and was the very active chairman of the First Aid and Life Saving Medical Commission of the Swiss Red Cross from 1973 until his death. At the same time he was an honorary member of the Swiss Red Cross and a member of its Board of Directors.

From 1960 to 1973, Dr R. Käser held the high function of chief medical officer of the Swiss army with the rank of major-general. He was also the Swiss representative at the International Committee of Military Medicine and Pharmacy, an intergovernmental organization connected with the World Health Organization. He was appointed an honorary member of this Committee and remained, until his death, the director general for its International Further Training Courses for Young Army Doctors. In that capacity he organized the first further training course held in the autumn of 1980 at the Henry Dunant Institute.

From 1974 to 1977, Dr Käser was a member of the Swiss delegation to the Diplomatic Conference on the Reaffirmation and Development of International Humanitarian Law, which ended with the signing of the Protocols Additional to the Geneva Conventions.

Dr Käser joined the ICRC on 1 June 1975 as chief medical officer and held this post until April 1978 when he asked to be released, while remaining in charge of the ICRC international medical missions group. Dr Käser rendered very considerable service to the ICRC during those three years. Through patience, knowledge of medical circles, organizational qualities and untiring efforts he developed the ICRC medical division to such an extent that the machinery he set up enabled the ICRC to carry out large-scale medical assistance activities in different areas of the world.

Dr Käser's work to introduce and disseminate international humanitarian law among medical circles was also remarkable and those who will benefit from the instruction he initiated will owe him a great debt of gratitude.

All who knew Dr Käser will remember him as a man who, despite his very demanding duties, remained a warm and loyal friend.

EXTERNAL ACTIVITIES

Africa

Angola

On the African continent, the ICRC's most complex operation continued to be in Angola, where an ICRC office was opened in Bié at the start of May, supplementing the delegation already established in Luanda and the sub-delegation in Huambo. However, as previously mentioned, ICRC operations for the displaced population in the country's highlands had to be suspended on May 2 because of the high security risks involved.

During the suspension, the general delegate for Africa, Mr. Jean-Marc Bornet visited Angola from 13 May to 25 May to review the situation. As a result of his mission, it was decided to modify the action, using two aircraft to transport staff and supplies to those areas in need. It was under this system that ICRC activities in the provinces of Huambo, Bailundo and Bié could start again at the end of June. The first flight was made to Bailundo on 26 June.

Following a survey made in April in the province of Bié, it was estimated that about 5000 people would need assistance. To meet these needs, the use of air transport will allow our distribution work to proceed, both in the province of Huambo as well as in Bié.

Food stocks held in Huambo and Bié for the Planalto Region amount to 722 tons and there are 379 tons held at Lobito harbour. Moreover, 1,696 tons of maize, powdered milk and butter oil were expected shortly at Lobito. The ICRC having two aircraft at its disposal, relief supplies were thenceforth to be distributed by means of these aircraft. There are eleven landing fields which can be used in Huambo and Bié provinces enabling supplies to reach those in need.

Since the beginning of March a total of 261 tons of various goods (cleaning material, blankets, shelter material, clothing, paramedical

supplies), worth about 660,000 Swiss francs, have been delivered to Angola.

The troubles which occurred in April and May caused the temporary suspension of medical assistance in villages covered by our action. Meanwhile, the special nutritional rehabilitation feeding centres at Bailundo and Katchiungo, despite the suspension of ICRC support, have been able to function normally. A medical team is ready to resume its hospital work in Bailundo.

The orthopaedic centre at Bomba Alta continues its work for amputees, both civilian and military. The work at the centre has improved as a result of an increase in the numbers of ICRC specialists, the arrival of basic materials and a revised system of recruiting and training local personnel provided by the "Angola Red Cross". A shelter is planned for about 20 amputees. The agreement for co-operation between the "Angola Red Cross" and ICRC, which expires this month, is to be renegotiated for a further period of one year.

The conflict in Angola resulted in a large number of displaced persons. Accordingly, a traditional tracing system was started in co-operation with the "Angola Red Cross" for needy persons, prisoners of war and detained foreigners, whose country of origin is not officially represented in Angola. The tracing requirements of displaced persons are met by the local "Angola Red Cross" which has set up a system covering the principal provinces of the country.

South Africa

Townships, and other areas in Natal, the Cape Province, and Ciskei were visited by an ICRC delegate during a three-week mission in May to improve the monitoring of relief and evaluate the needs of families of political detainees in each of the areas visited.

Namibia/South-West Africa

In early May, the competent authorities gave permission for the opening of an ICRC office in Windhoek. Officially opened on 6 July, the office marks the start of an ICRC presence in the territory on a permanent basis.

Zambia

It was decided by the ICRC during May to close its Zambian delegation and transfer responsibility for further activities in the country to the regional delegation now based in Salisbury, Zimbabwe.

Uganda

For many months, the ICRC has been closely following the unstable situation in the West Nile province caused by outbreaks of fighting, and extending protection and assistance to the civilian population. Our presence was firmly established in the region with the opening of the sub-delegation in Arua, in January of this year.

May and June saw a resurgence of tension in the country, particularly in the West Nile Province. Acting head of the ICRC delegation in Kampala, Pierre Pont, visited the Arua sub-delegation on May 18, to review the situation and to settle upon measures which would be instituted in case of emergency.

The emergency presented itself on 24 June when Ombachi Mission was attacked by uncontrolled elements. About 10,000 people have been sheltering at the mission from the grave troubles which had plagued the region since the beginning of the month.

The attack resulted in the death of 60 civilians while about another 100 were wounded. Another consequence was the flight of refugees towards Zaire.

In addition to the ICRC delegate, representatives from the League of Red Cross Societies, a team from "Médecins sans frontières", as well as some German doctors and Swedish logistics experts, were staying at the mission, run by the Fathers of Verona, at that time.

Alarmed by the scale of violence in the region, the ICRC launched a solemn appeal to the parties concerned, reminding them of their obligation to observe and carry out the fundamental humanitarian principles.

* * *

Here is a brief summary of ICRC activities during recent months:

The ICRC distributed to prisons in Uganda soap, disinfectants, clothing, various kinds of utensils, blankets, recreational material as well as beans and milk powder in those places where the feeding situation called for it.

Besides providing relief to detainees, our delegates also distributed utensils and other basic requirements to about 1000 families, victims of pillage in the region of Kiboga, west of Kampala.

Between January and June in the West Nile, relief was brought to about 20,000 people who had been either displaced or victims of plunder and pillage. This particular programme will continue until the end of this year, in co-operation with the League of Red Cross Societies and

other humanitarian organisations, including UNDP, CARE, OXFAM and EEC.

So far this year, relief supplies valued at 420,000 Swiss francs have been provided in the West Nile and in prisons throughout the country.

In all the places of detention visited by the ICRC, serious medical problems were observed among the detainees. To help alleviate these problems steps have been taken by the ICRC to improve the standard of care given to prisoners, and to facilitate the transfer of certain detainees to hospitals; medicines have been regularly distributed, as well as simple laboratory equipment.

Basic medical kits and bandages are regularly supplied to civilian dispensaries and hospitals in the West Nile. This programme will continue for the next 6 months, in co-operation with other organisations. In particular the League of Red Cross Societies will be responsible for the hospitals at Nebbi (south of Arua).

During the first half of this year medical supplies worth about 168,000 Swiss francs were sent to prisons and dispensaries in the West Nile.

The Kampala Tracing office, opened in September 1979, is principally concerned with registration of detainees, exchange of family messages between detainees and their families, tracing families of detainees and other persons who disappeared since May 1979. In the past 6 months over 10,000 family messages were exchanged.

We would like to end this notice with a special mention. The local section of the Uganda Red Cross at Arua in the West Nile showed on 8 May a significant example of its support. At a sporting event it collected the sum of 1,000 dollars which it offered to the ICRC for its action in favour of the orphans of N'Djamena in Chad.

Zaire

Since the ICRC encountered a slow-down in its activities on behalf of detainees in Zaire, starting around the month of March, it was decided to send a mission from Geneva to evaluate the work of the delegation and the co-operation of the authorities so as to decide if and how such co-operation might be improved in order to facilitate access to all places of detention.

ICRC protection activities in Zaire started after the events in Shaba in May 1978 which had initially called for an assistance operation. The delegates at that time undertook to visit places of detention in the province of Shaba. At the beginning, and on several occasions thereafter, the delegates negotiated successive agreements which finally assured

them of access to all places of detention under the authority of Justice, Security, military and police jurisdictions. Series of visits were accordingly carried out, notably in the provinces of Equateur and Shaba and to some degree in Kivu.

The delegates from Geneva, Mrs. J. Egger, regional delegate for central and western Africa, and Mr. J.-F. Labarthe, in charge of the Detention Service of the ICRC Operations Department, were in Kinshasa from 27 June to 10 July.

Despite repeated efforts, they were not able to meet the president or any other responsible authority of the National Red Cross Society. They had meetings only with governmental authorities.

The authorities gave the necessary assurances to provide the ICRC with access to places of detention and the program for subsequent visits was decided upon.

Before their departure, the delegates from Geneva visited detention cells of the OAU and the CNRI in Kinshasa and subsequently the Makala prison, which had all been visited earlier. The regular ICRC delegation thereafter made visits to the same three places of detention and to the G2.

It may be noted that the ICRC delegation in Zaire, between 14 and 24 May had visited 11 detention centres in four towns (Kipushi, Kolwezi, Likasi, Lubumbashi) in the province of Shaba. On 10 June, the delegates visited the CNRI in Bukavu and Goma. These were the first ICRC visits to the latter places of detention.

The Zaire authorities expressed the desire to enlarge their co-operation by a campaign for dissemination of international humanitarian law and information on ICRC activities, which were still not well known to a part of the population. They also invited the ICRC to participate in a seminar on human rights to be organized by the Attorney General for magistrates and officers in charge of places of detention.

In addition, the authorities decided to maintain assistance projects supported by the ICRC in co-operation with certain governments in various prisons which were under the authority of the Ministry of Justice.

The headquarters agreement defining the status of the delegation to Zaire, which had been submitted some months earlier by the ICRC, was expected to be signed shortly by the State Commissioner for Foreign Affairs.

In February 1981 the Director of Zaire prison services visited Geneva, where detailed discussions took place with ICRC officials concerned with detention problems. These talks were followed by visits to two Swiss places of detention.

Burundi

Two ICRC delegates, Mrs. J. Egger and Mr. J.-F. Labarthe, visited Burundi from 22 to 27 June, to meet the authorities and offer the services of the ICRC for additional visits to all categories of detainees.

The ICRC had previously visited detainees in Burundi, up to 1978. At that time, the ICRC had excellent relations with the authorities who gave priority to making the prisons self-sufficient in terms of food supplies. The ICRC in 1978 had been obliged to discontinue this work in Burundi because of the numerous conflicts taking place in Africa which made great demands upon the institution's human and material resources.

The ICRC delegates were received by Mr. Laurent Nzeyimana, Minister of Justice, Mr. Magenge, Director General in the Ministry for Foreign Affairs, and Mr. G. Marirakiza, Director of prison services.

The authorities expressed the desire to resume their co-operation with the ICRC and confirmed that they would grant delegates access to all places of detention and to all categories of detainees and that the visits would take place in accordance with standard ICRC procedures. An initial series of visits was planned for the near future.

Despite their requests, the ICRC delegates were not able to meet the President or any other officer of the National Society but had talks only with the government authorities.

Rwanda

Mrs. J. Egger, ICRC regional delegate for central and western Africa, and Mr. J.-F. Labarthe, head of the Detention Service of the ICRC Operations Department, carried out a mission in Rwanda from 12 to 21 June, to meet the authorities and offer the services of the ICRC for visits to all categories of detainees.

The latest previous general visit to places of detention in Rwanda by ICRC delegates had taken place in 1974. At that time, the delegates visited the Ruhengeri prison, in which were held detainees of interest to the ICRC. From 1975, access to this prison, though authorized by the Head of State, was in fact prevented. In 1980, the President of the "Rwandan Red Cross" wrote to the President of the ICRC, asking that the ICRC back up his Society's and his Government's efforts to improve detention conditions. This request led to the mission by the two ICRC delegates.

In Rwanda, the delegates met a number of prominent persons, including Mrs. A. Habyarimana, honorary president of the "Red Cross"

and wife of the Head of State, the Minister of Justice, the Minister of Health and numerous other high government officials.

In the course of two very frank meetings with the Minister of Justice, the delegates recalled the conditions and procedures for ICRC visits to places of detention. The offer of the ICRC's services was received with great interest. Due to the absence from the country of the Head of State at the time of the visit by the delegates, it was agreed that the procedures would be submitted to him for his approval when he returned.

The ICRC delegates also met several representatives of the "Rwandan Red Cross", including the President, Dr. Claudien Kamilindi, and the Secretary General, Abbé Kamugisha.

They found it to be a dynamic society, carrying out a variety of remarkable activities. Its statutes are in the process of amendment, with a view to obtaining recognition by the ICRC. Its organization includes 143 local sections and has about 600 first aid workers. It maintains an orphanage at Masaka, for very young children, and another at Kacyiro, for older children and adolescents, and a blood-transfusion centre, served by 35 blood-collection posts in different parts of the country. Another aspect deserves special mention—that the society is attempting to finance all of its own activities, thanks to the efforts and initiatives of the president of its Finance Commission.

Chad

After carrying out a survey in March in the south of Chad, as reported previously in the *Review*, the ICRC delegation made another survey in May in the center and a third one in June in the west and the north of the country.

Three ICRC delegates, together with a representative of the newly formed "Chad Red Cross", visited the central part of the country from 14 to 24 May. They found that the civilian population in that area had not been greatly affected by the conflict.

On June 10, three ICRC delegates and two representatives of the "Chad Red Cross" left N'Djamena for the western and northern areas of the country. They returned to the capital on 2 July after making a survey of the area.

The delegates took with them several truckloads of food and medical supplies, which they distributed through the local sections of the "Chad Red Cross" or gave to dispensaries.

From these extensive trips, the ICRC delegation concluded that the population of the country no longer needs the emergency assistance of

the ICRC but requires the long term assistance of agencies specializing in rehabilitation and development. The ICRC is considering handing over its programmes in the near future to such organisations; reports of its delegation surveys have been transmitted to agencies which might intervene in Chad.

While the plan of disengagement was expected to be carried out in July and August, the ICRC was still concerned during May and June with protection. Its delegation was particularly involved in locating ex-prisoners from the south of the country, who were victims of earlier conflicts and who had been unable to leave the northern regions.

Latin America

Argentina

In the five months up to the end of May, ICRC delegates had visited 16 detention centres, including the four principal prisons, Caseros, Villa Devoto, Rawson and La Plata, where 1,369 of the 1,450 detainees of interest to the ICRC had been regrouped.

Colombia

A delegate visited 66 detainees held in the Ipiales Prison in the south of the country during the later half of May. In the week from June 8 to 12, ICRC delegates visited two detention centres in Bucaramanga, a town in the north-east of the country. Of a total of 774 detainees, 36 were of concern to the ICRC.

Bolivia

Mr. A. Kobel, ICRC regional delegate for the Andean countries, arrived in La Paz on July 2. Before visiting new detainees he had discussions with the Minister of the Interior who has renewed the government's authorisation permitting the ICRC to visit detention centres.

Salvador

In view of continuing violence in El Salvador, the increased activities of protection and assistance of the ICRC, the launching of a campaign of information and dissemination of the principles of the Red Cross and international humanitarian law, it was essential to strengthen the ICRC delegation in that country. The total increased from 8 delegates in January to 13 in June, assisted by 35 local employees. Volunteer workers

of the El Salvador Red Cross also co-operated in the ICRC's assistance work for the benefit of displaced persons.

At the end of May, it was estimated that there were more than 150,000 displaced persons throughout the country. About 110,000 of them had found refuge in localities which were relatively unaffected by the fighting and were receiving assistance from governmental or voluntary agencies. Some 40,000 of the displaced persons were in combat zones. The ICRC, whose neutrality, impartiality and independence of action are recognized by all concerned, concentrated its activities in these zones, which could not be reached by other organizations.

From 1 January to 31 May of this year, with logistic and personnel assistance from the El Salvador Red Cross, the ICRC distributed to these displaced persons more than 600 tons of foodstuffs in the form of individual rations, including corn, powdered milk, oil, rice and sugar. It also provided clothing for children, mats and about 3,000 blankets.

In addition, the ICRC gave medical care to displaced persons. A team composed of 3 doctors and 2 nurses, locally recruited, working under the direction of an ICRC doctor, cared for people in the departments of Morazan and San Miguel.

Since the opening of its delegation in El Salvador in June 1980, the ICRC has obtained from the authorities far-reaching freedom which enables delegates to visit, without advance notice, all places of detention, permanent or temporary, both civilian and military, in accordance with standard ICRC procedures, and to deliver relief to the detainees if necessary.

During the first five months of 1981, the delegates made 295 visits to 159 places of detention, under the authority of the national guard, national police and customs police, as well as in military garrisons and in prisons under the authority of the Ministry of Justice. Taking into account the frequency of the visits, the delegates in the course of all these visits saw a cumulative total of 4,290 detainees, most of whom were seen several times. In accordance with custom, confidential reports on these visits were transmitted to the authorities.

The volume of work of the Tracing Agency office increased greatly. An average of 40 persons came daily to the ICRC delegation to report on persons who had disappeared or to ask for information about detained relatives.

Since June 1980, the office opened about 1900 tracing files. Of this total, it was able to give some 550 replies. The office also maintained a general file on all persons arrested for reasons of security who had been visited by the ICRC delegates.

Since the National Society's possibilities for soliciting funds were directly affected by the events, it was essential to provide it with financial support to permit the effective operation of its ambulance service and clinic. It was agreed that the ICRC would henceforth contribute 50,000 Swiss francs per month to the Society.

On 17 June, the ICRC launched a new and urgent appeal for funds to enable it to continue its protection and assistance activities in El Salvador during the last half of 1981, the budget for which amounts to 4.9 million Swiss francs.

Asia

Missions by the Delegate-General and the Head of the Medical Division

Mr. Jean de Courten, delegate-general for Asia and Oceania, carried out missions in Thailand, Kampuchea and Vietnam from 3 to 18 May.

In Thailand and Kampuchea, he had numerous discussions with the authorities, with representatives of humanitarian organizations and with the ICRC delegations in order to sum up the current situation and decide upon future ICRC activities for the benefit of the Kampuchea peoples.

During the latter part of June, Dr. Rémy Russbach, Head of the Medical Division of the ICRC, also visited Phnom Penh and Bangkok. He also toured the frontier zone between Thailand and Kampuchea to observe ICRC activities in the refugee camps.

Thailand

In May and June, the ICRC delegation continued its protection and assistance activities for refugees along the Kampuchea-Thailand frontier. These two months constituted a period of particular difficulty due to armed fighting in the vicinity of the refugee camps and to other external circumstances which interfered with the work of the ICRC teams.

The ICRC medical structure in May and June consisted of two teams, one of them north and one of them south of Aranyaprathet, and a surgical team in the camp at Khao-I-Dang.

During this period, the ICRC no longer provided medicines except to its own medical teams. Medical co-operation was entrusted to the "Border Medical Co-ordination Group", officially recognized by the Thai authorities. The ICRC is a member of this committee, together with UNICEF and the voluntary agencies involved.

In the domain of protection at the frontier, the ICRC continued to concern itself with the situation of Vietnamese nationals and some Kampuchean nationals who found themselves in particularly dangerous circumstances. The very presence of the delegates constituted an element of protection for civilians, which was particularly important in view of the politico-military situation. The ICRC made urgent representations to the authorities in Bangkok seeking measures to assure the security of these refugees. The ICRC has consistently advocated the transfer of these persons to camps farther into the interior of Thailand.

The Central Tracing Agency office attached to the ICRC delegation continued its traditional activities in ten refugee camps along the frontier. In addition to the transmission of messages and the tracing of persons, this office undertook a systematic listing of child refugees separated from their families and made a careful check of indications as to the identity of these children, in an effort to re-unite them with their families. This work was extremely difficult because the populations in these camps were constantly shifting, with refugees moving from one camp to another without notice, while unaccompanied children did the same. A trend appeared to be developing among refugees for their return to Kampuchea, with the encouragement of Thai authorities.

In May and June, the ICRC delegation distributed about 50 tons of rice and 15 tons of other foodstuffs, valued at about 25,000 dollars. In the same period it distributed medicines and medical and para-medical material to hospitals and camp dispensaries to a value of about 120,000 dollars.

Kampuchea

With the ending of the emergency period in Kampuchea, the personnel of the ICRC delegation was reduced. From 14 persons plus 5 medical teams at the beginning of the year, the total personnel was brought down to 7 persons at the end of June. The last medical teams were withdrawn on 19 June.

For the continuance of medical assistance, the ICRC would like to have a medical co-ordinator from the League take up his functions at Phnom Penh to facilitate contacts between National Societies elsewhere and the Red Cross at Phnom Penh. The Order of Malta has expressed its desire to continue the ICRC action for the benefit of lepers in the province of Kompong Cham.

Up to the end of this year, the ICRC is willing to continue supplying certain medicines of an emergency nature or which are in common use; shipments of blood will continue until the Phnom Penh blood bank is

operating. Such medical assistance will continue to be limited and will be adapted to the developments of the situation and the availability of the country's own medical services. The ICRC will maintain a minimum staff, consisting for example of one doctor and one pharmacist to check needs and oversee the use made of medicines.

During May, the plane chartered by the ICRC, in 13 flights from Bangkok to Phnom Penh, brought in 84 tons of relief, including more than 71 tons of medical and paramedical material, along with miscellaneous products for hospital maintenance, with an overall value of about 1,700,000 dollars.

In his talks with the authorities during his visit to Phnom Penh in the middle of May, the delegate-general gave particular emphasis to the urgency of solving the problem of about 900 children without parents who were among the refugees at the frontier. He made every effort to convince the Kampuchean authorities that substantial progress should be made without delay in searching for their families and turning over the children to their families. The ICRC has constantly stressed the importance of re-uniting families and restoring children to their own cultural surroundings in contrast to foreign adoptions, just as long as there is any hope of finding the families.

The representative of the UNHCR and the Red Cross of Phnom Penh both shared and supported the ICRC point of view. The authorities said that they were in favor, on humanitarian grounds, of the return of these children to Kampuchea.

Accordingly, the ICRC supplied lists of the children whose families had to be found. These lists were in the form of posters, with photographs of the children to facilitate identification.

* * *

Miss Phlech Phiroun, president of the Red Cross at Phnom Penh, accompanied by Dr. My Samedy, secretary general, visited Geneva from 22 to 30 May. At ICRC headquarters, they had numerous discussions relating to Red Cross assistance and protection activities in Kampuchea.

Viet Nam

Mr. Jean de Courten, delegate-general for Asia and Oceania, was in Viet Nam from 12 to 18 May for talks with a number of government representatives and with leaders of the National Red Cross Society.

In particular, he had discussions with Mr. Vo Dong Giang, Vice-Minister for Foreign Affairs, Mr. Nguyen Tang Am, Vice-Minister of Health and Mr. Nguyen Luong, Deputy Director of the International Organizations Department of the Ministry for Foreign Affairs. The delegate-general also met Mr. Nguyen Van Tin, Vice-President of the National Society, and other members.

In all these talks, the delegate-general described the activities of the ICRC along the Thailand frontier and in Kampuchea and discussed the manner in which the ICRC intended to pursue its activities during the last half of the year. He gave particular emphasis to the question of children separated from their parents, whom the ICRC wished to restore to their families as quickly as possible. He referred also to the problems of protection in Kampuchea.

Transfer

On 28 May, a plane chartered by the ICRC transported 93 persons (83 adults and 10 children) from Viet Nam to Taiwan, where they wished to join relatives.

Vietnamese refugees in south-east Asia

From 16 to 19 June, a technical seminar was held in Bangkok for the development of Agency services set up in the various Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies of south-east Asia to help Vietnamese refugees in the region. These Agency services are concerned mainly with the listing of refugees, the transmission of messages and searches for missing persons. The ICRC acts as co-ordinator and adviser in these activities and the Central Tracing Agency maintains several permanent delegates in south-east Asia for this purpose.

Representatives of the Agency services of five National Societies in the region (Indonesia, Malaysia, Philippines, Singapore and Thailand) and branches of the British Red Cross at Hong Kong and the Portuguese Red Cross at Macao took part in the seminar, as did four delegates of the Central Tracing Agency.

The purpose was to evaluate the current situation and assess the work carried out since the previous seminar of the same kind, at Jakarta in July 1980. The participants were also concerned with verifying technical working procedures and exploring possibilities for improving them.

Indonesia*Timor*

On 5 May, the Indonesia Red Cross and the ICRC agreed to continue their joint relief action in Timor, on a reduced scale and for a limited period, so far as the necessary funds were available. The purpose of this operation was to consolidate the results obtained during the initial period of activity, which ended in April, to develop the local Red Cross section, to enable the authorities to take over and carry on the medical activities and, for the Indonesian Red Cross and the ICRC, to develop such traditional activities as the tracing of missing persons, the transmission of family messages and the reuniting of families separated by the events.

An ICRC delegate went to East Timor in mid-June to visit the villages which had been assisted during the first phase of the relief operation.

Dr. Saronto, in charge of operations in East Timor for the Indonesian Red Cross, was in Geneva from 18 to 25 June, where he visited the ICRC, the League and the Henry Dunant Institute. He discussed with the various services of these institutions matters connected with the activities in Timor.

Philippines

From the beginning of May up to 22 June, four ICRC delegates, including a doctor, carried out a series of visits to places of detention in Manila and the provinces. They visited a total of 25 places of detention. The delegates were to present their observations and possible suggestions to the responsible authorities at Manila in July.

Republic of Korea

Following an agreement reached between the "Saharawi Red Crescent" and the ICRC, 48 South Korean fishermen, who had been detained by the Polisario, were flown by the ICRC from North Africa on June 17. On arrival at the Zurich airport, the fishermen were handed over by ICRC delegates to South Korean officials.

Oceania

New Zealand, Fiji, Tonga

Mr. David Delapraz, ICRC regional delegate at Kuala Lumpur, carried out a mission in Oceania from 15 June to 5 July.

In New Zealand and Fiji, he visited the National Red Cross Societies for discussions of various subjects of common interest, notably the dissemination of the principles of humanitarian law in the armed forces. It may be noted in this connection, for example, that Fiji soldiers are members of contingents of the United Nations forces in Lebanon.

In the Kingdom of Tonga, the regional delegate met with the local Red Cross, a former branch of the British Red Cross, which has recently applied to the ICRC for recognition.

Middle East

Lebanon

As violence continued in Lebanon throughout May and June, particularly in Beirut and Zahle, the ICRC maintained its emergency action in co-operation with the Lebanese Red Cross and the Palestinian "Red Crescent".

The ICRC's chief medical officer, Dr. Rémy Russbach, arrived in Beirut on 5 May, accompanied by a nurse, and from there proceeded to southern Lebanon before going to the area north of Beirut to evaluate the medical situation. As a result of the mission, which lasted until May 18, Dr. Russbach concluded that medical needs were for the time being covered by the local medical system: the hospitals were functioning; personnel and supplies were sufficient. The principal problem, he found, was the need to collect information continuously on the medical situation in each region. For this purpose, he established a system for keeping up to date on the medical situation throughout the country.

A violent escalation in the fighting hit Beirut on May 31. On the same day, armed men forced their way into the ICRC vehicle depot and into the delegation office itself, demanding transport. They escaped with an ambulance, two mini-buses and a car, all equipped with VHF radios and Red Cross flags.

On 30 June, peace returned to Zahle. During the preceding 90 days, the ICRC had arranged 31 convoys which transported a total of 636

kilograms of medical supplies as well as food and 160 blankets. On their return to Beirut, the convoys had been the means of evacuating 361 people (wounded, sick, elderly persons and children) to be reunited with their families.

During April and May, the value of assistance by the ICRC throughout Lebanon was 728,000 Swiss francs. Of this amount 126,000 Swiss francs was spent on medical needs, 165,000 on relief and 437,000 went towards the cost of ambulances.

A convoy of 13 ambulances, supplied by the German Red Cross in the Federal Republic of Germany arrived in Lebanon on 31 May after having left Germany on 23 May. Seven of the ambulances were given to the Lebanese Red Cross, four to the Palestinian "Red Crescent" and two were to be used by the ICRC delegation.

Iran-Iraq conflict

Presidential mission to Iran

After visiting Iraq in March-April, ICRC President Alexandre Hay, accompanied by the general delegate for the Middle East, Jean Hoefliger, was in Iran from 21 to 26 June, where he met with high ranking government officials, including the Prime Minister, the Vice-Minister of Foreign Affairs, the President of the Islamic Party and Supreme Court, the Chief of the Iranian Army, the Attorney General of the Revolutionary Islamic Courts and the President of the Parliament.

Delegations

In Iraq and Iran, the ICRC continued, during May and June, to perform its tasks of protection for prisoners of war and at the same time provided assistance and protection to civilians in occupied territories and persons displaced from their homes as a result of military operations.

As the number of dead, wounded, missing and prisoners of war were increasing on both sides, the ICRC was obliged to strengthen its delegations in Baghdad and Teheran.

At present, the Baghdad delegation comprises ten delegates, of whom one is a doctor and four are Central Tracing Agency specialists.

The Teheran delegation comprises twelve delegates, of whom one is a doctor and one is a Central Tracing Agency specialist.

Over 6,000 prisoners of war in the two belligerent countries were visited at regular intervals. They receive assistance in the form of clothing, books, games and cigarettes.

Through the Central Tracing Agency, over 45,000 Red Cross messages were exchanged between prisoners and their relatives, contributing to the moral comfort which families, torn by the conflict, need so much. At the same time it continued its work in identifying soldiers killed in action. Several thousand enquiries were processed, and there was a significant increase in the number of persons reported missing.

Occupied territories

ICRC delegates several times visited Iranian territory occupied by the Iraqi Army, to determine whether aid was needed by the civilian population, and to ensure the observance of the Fourth Geneva Convention by the occupying authorities. Permission was sought for the Central Tracing Agency to make a census of families separated by the conflict.

Displaced persons

An initial consignment of powdered milk and medicaments was dispatched for the displaced civilians in Iran. ICRC delegates made several visits to displaced persons in the regions of Ahwaz, Dezful, Jiroft, Isphahan and Meshed, the object being to see whether additional assistance was required. The ICRC informed the Iranian authorities that it was ready to provide further supplementary assistance whenever needed.

Repatriation of wounded prisoners

The simultaneous repatriation of 17 wounded Iraqi prisoners of war and 25 wounded Iranian prisoners of war was carried out under the auspices of the ICRC on 16 June.

It was at the Larnaca airport in Cyprus that the prisoners of war were handed over by the ICRC to the two parties. The operation was the first of its type since the start of the conflict.

An aircraft, specially chartered for the operation by the ICRC, left Geneva the previous evening loaded with 7.5 tons of urgent relief destined for the victims of the earthquake which had hit Iran on 14 June. The supplies, which included tents, blankets, medicaments and various relief goods, had been made available by the Swiss Red Cross, the League of Red Cross Societies and the ICRC.

Iraq

Throughout May and June, the ICRC's protection activities in Iraq continued. The prisoners of war were visited by ICRC delegates during May and June in two different camps.

Iran

Following the authorisation of the Iranian authorities on 21 April allowing ICRC delegates to visit Iranian detainees in the hands of the Islamic Revolutionary Committees, delegates visited 31 centres in Teheran and five in Azerbaïdjan from 21 April to 9 May.

Furthermore, the prisoners of war were visited by ICRC delegates during May and June in 1 camp, 3 prisons and a number of hospitals.

Appeal by ICRC

On 16 June, the ICRC appealed to governments and National Red Cross Societies to send contributions to cover the costs of its emergency activities in aid of the victims of the Iran-Iraq conflict.

The total sum needed to cover the ICRC aid programme in Iraq and Iran for the period from 1 April to 31 December 1981, amounts to 4,350,000 Swiss francs.

Israel and Occupied Territories

During May and June, ICRC delegates in Israel and the occupied territories carried out 388 visits to detainees under interrogation in the Gaza and Jerusalem sectors. During the same period, they continued their customary visits to places of detention holding detainees arrested on an administrative order.

In addition, the repatriation of two Lebanese detainees was effected through the auspices of the ICRC on 11 May at the frontier post of Rosh Hanikra. On 21, 24 and 27 May, three separate repatriation operations were organised at Allenby Bridge for a total of five people. There were two operations at the same bridge on 10 and 30 June, also arranged through the ICRC.

Jordan

The fifth series of visits in Jordanian prisons was completed between 23 May and 26 June. Of the 2,500 prisoners seen, fewer than 180 were of concern to the ICRC.

Pakistan

Dr. R. Arbex, Deputy Head of the ICRC Medical Division, carried out an evaluation mission from 1 March to 16 April in the northern and western provinces of Pakistan, in which there are many refugees from Afghanistan. The principal purpose of his mission was to assess progress

in ICRC projects for opening a surgical hospital at Peshawar, with a workshop for making prostheses for wounded Afghans, and a second hospital for refugee women and children. These hospitals were also intended to serve as a logistics base for the four mobile medical teams working in the refugee camps and for the five dispensaries in the camps.

On 15 June, the surgical hospital was opened at Peshawar, with a capacity of 45 to 65 beds. In addition to local employees, the medical personnel included persons placed at the disposal of the ICRC by the National Societies of New Zealand and the German Federal Republic.

Dr. Pascal Grellety, in charge of the ICRC's mobile medical teams, made a report to the ICRC at the end of June. After nine months of work, under extremely difficult conditions, he said that a rational system of preventive and curative medicine had been introduced amongst a nomad population, with a degree of success that surpassed all expectations. Although these results were encouraging, they continued to be precarious and the whole achievement could be reduced to nothing unless it received continuing support. This action is meeting a truly urgent need and no other person or agency but the ICRC is in a position to assure its operation.

Since the beginning of the ICRC action for the benefit of victims of the events in Afghanistan, in October 1980, up to April 1981, 221 medical parcels, with a total value of more than 40,000 Swiss francs, were turned over to groups of doctors and nurses leaving for Afghanistan, to work either among the civilian population or to give first aid to the military wounded.

Europe

Spain

From 5 to 28 May, Mr. Philippe Grand d'Hauteville, ICRC regional delegate for Europe, and Dr. J. Germann, medical delegate, made visits to 10 places of detention in Madrid and the provinces. They saw 519 detainees, awaiting trial or sentenced, under the terms of Spain's anti-terrorist legislation. The ICRC delegate-general for Europe and North America, Mr. Frank Schmidt, joined the two delegates for their later visits and for a final interview with the Ministry of Justice.

In June and early July, Mr. F. Robadey, ICRC delegate, and Dr. G. Perren, medical delegate, visited nine places of detention and saw 40 detainees.

All these visits were made in accordance with the ICRC's customary procedures.

Northern Ireland

The British Government on 15 July notified the ICRC that it would authorize its delegates to visit detainees in Northern Ireland. Accordingly, three delegates, Mr. Frank Schmidt, delegate-general for Europe and North America, Mr. Philippe Grand d'Hauteville and Dr. Rémy Russbach went to Belfast and from 16 to 22 July, in four places of detention, visited persons detained in connection with the events.

Between October 1971 and March 1976, the ICRC had made seven series of visits to administrative detainees, held under the terms of special legislation which entered into effect in 1971. Since the end of its series of visits, there were no longer any internees in this category, but the ICRC renewed the offer of its services (most recently on 14 May 1981) to visit accused and sentenced prisoners.

BOOKS AND REVIEWS

JEAN-LUC HIEBEL: ASSISTANCE SPIRITUELLE ET CONFLITS ARMÉS — DROIT HUMAIN¹

Readers of *International Review* will recall that the January-February 1980 number contained a study by Mr. Hiebel entitled "Human rights relating to spiritual assistance as embodied in the Geneva Conventions of 1949". This paper anticipated and summarized the remarkable book which has just come out and which was the author's doctoral thesis for a degree in theology, at the University of Strasbourg. Mr. Hiebel's earlier article for *International Review* will dispense me from writing too lengthy a review, even though the outstanding significance of the book which the Henry Dunant Institute has had the privilege of publishing in its Scientific Collection would have called for more detailed treatment.

Mr. Hiebel is not a jurist and, as we said above, he submitted a theological thesis. Nevertheless, anyone reading it would have certainly been justified in assuming that he had addressed himself to extensive legal studies and indeed the book would have made a perfectly valid thesis for a doctorate in laws. But the approach is also ethical.

A debt of gratitude is owed to Mr. Jean-Luc Hiebel for having devoted considerable effort and time to gathering all that is related to the exercise of the spiritual mission in time of war, the legal basis of which is to be found, of course, in the Geneva Conventions. We are thus offered an indispensable tool for all those who share some responsibility in the implementation and teaching of international humanitarian law—one which is a veritable "summa" on questions well beyond matters of military chaplaincy alone. The book also contains a detailed analysis—quite unique in the case of spiritual assistance—of the deliberations of the Diplomatic Conferences which elaborated the Geneva Conventions and the Additional Protocols, an analysis which renders the book of real topical interest.

¹ Scientific Collection of the Henry Dunant Institute, Geneva, 1980, 462 p., 67 Swiss francs, in French only.

After an introductory chapter on the historical background of the question, giving a useful outline of early practices, the author puts forward some major questions: how did spiritual assistance become a subject in international law (chapter 1); how did the right to spiritual assistance evolve in the course of its development (chapters 2 to 8); what is the outlook for spiritual assistance in a law of human rights (chapter 9)? The central portion consists, as a matter of course, of a detailed and pertinent commentary on the treaty provisions governing the right of victims of conflicts to spiritual assistance and the protection and status of chaplains. These considerations are interspersed with a number of cogent observations on such matters as the protection of civilians, the nature of conflicts, the extension of the notion of "combatant", the protection of properties and other relevant subjects.

But no misapprehension should be entertained about the treatise referred to so briefly here. It is not restricted to "technicalities". It also contains some general reflections on the philosophy which inspires assistance and even on such fundamental concepts as religion, war and law.

In short, we have here a book both of science and of thought, a book that is forceful, well constructed and well written, permeated by a spirit of objectivity and liberal-mindedness. It fills a gap that had been hitherto sorely felt and there is no doubt that it will do a great deal to maintain and develop spiritual assistance, a valuable complement to the medical services and indissolubly linked to respect for the human person when acts of violence lead to grievous rifts and schisms among peoples.

J. P.

ADDRESSES OF NATIONAL SOCIETIES

- AFGHANISTAN** (Democratic Republic) — Afghan Red Crescent, Pul-i Artan, *Kabul*.
- PEOPLE'S SOCIALIST REPUBLIC OF ALBANIA** — Albanian Red Cross, 35, Rruga e Barrikadave, *Tirana*.
- ALGERIA** (Democratic and People's Republic) — Algerian Red Crescent Society, 15 bis, Boulevard Mohamed V, *Algiers*.
- ARGENTINA** — Argentine Red Cross, H. Yrigoyen 2068, 1089 *Buenos Aires*.
- AUSTRALIA** — Australian Red Cross, 206, Clarendon Street, *East Melbourne 3002*.
- AUSTRIA** — Austrian Red Cross, 3 Gusshausstrasse, Postfach 39, *Vienna 4*.
- BAHAMAS** — Bahamas Red Cross Society, P.O. Box N 91, *Nassau*.
- BAHRAIN** — Bahrain Red Crescent Society, P.O. Box 882, *Manama*.
- BANGLADESH** — Bangladesh Red Cross Society, 34, Bangabandhu Avenue, *Dacca 2*.
- PEOPLE'S REPUBLIC OF BENIN** — Red Cross of Benin, B.P. 1, *Porto Novo*.
- BELGIUM** — Belgian Red Cross, 98 Chaussée de Vleurgat, 1050 *Brussels*.
- BOLIVIA** — Bolivian Red Cross, Avenida Simón Bolívar, 1515, *La Paz*.
- BOTSWANA** — Botswana Red Cross Society, Independence Avenue, P.O. Box 485, *Gaborone*.
- BRAZIL** — Brazilian Red Cross, Praça Cruz Vermelha 10-12, *Rio de Janeiro*.
- BULGARIA** — Bulgarian Red Cross, 1, Boul. Biruzov, *Sofia 27*.
- BURMA** (Socialist Republic of the Union of) — Burma Red Cross, 42 Strand Road, Red Cross Building, *Rangoon*.
- BURUNDI** — Red Cross Society of Burundi, rue du Marché 3, P.O. Box 324, *Bujumbura*.
- CAMEROON** — Cameroon Red Cross Society, rue Henry-Dunant, P.O.B. 631, *Yaoundé*.
- CANADA** — Canadian Red Cross, 95 Wellesley Street East, *Toronto, Ontario, M4Y 1H6*.
- CENTRAL AFRICAN REPUBLIC** — Central African Red Cross, B.P. 1428, *Bangui*.
- CHILE** — Chilean Red Cross, Avenida Santa María 0150, Correo 21, Casilla 246V., *Santiago*.
- CHINA** (People's Republic) — Red Cross Society of China, 53 Kanmien Hutung, *Peking*.
- COLOMBIA** — Colombian Red Cross, Carrera 7a, 34-65, Apartado nacional 1110, *Bogotá D.E.*
- CONGO, PEOPLE'S REPUBLIC OF THE** — Croix-Rouge Congolaise, place de la Paix, *Brazzaville*.
- COSTA RICA** — Costa Rican Red Cross, Calle 14, Avenida 8, Apartado 1025, *San José*.
- CUBA** — Cuban Red Cross, Calle 23 201 esq. N. Vedado, *Havana*.
- CZECHOSLOVAKIA** — Czechoslovak Red Cross, Thunovska 18, 118 04 *Prague 1*.
- DENMARK** — Danish Red Cross, Dag Hammarskjöld Allé 28, Postboks 2600, 2100 København Ø.
- DOMINICAN REPUBLIC** — Dominican Red Cross, Apartado Postal 1293, *Santo Domingo*.
- ECUADOR** — Ecuadorian Red Cross, Calle de la Cruz Roja y Avenida Colombia, 118, *Quito*.
- EGYPT** (Arab Republic of) — Egyptian Red Crescent Society, 29, El-Galaa Street, *Cairo*.
- EL SALVADOR** — El Salvador Red Cross, 3a Avenida Norte y 3a Calle Poniente, *San Salvador, C.A.*
- ETHIOPIA** — Ethiopian Red Cross, Rass Desta Damtew Avenue, *Addis Ababa*.
- FIJI** — Fiji Red Cross Society, 193 Rodwell Road, P.O. Box 569, *Suva*.
- FINLAND** — Finnish Red Cross, Tehtaankatu 1 A, Box 168, 00141 *Helsinki 14/15*.
- FRANCE** — French Red Cross, 17 rue Quentin Bauchart, F-75384 *Paris CEDEX 08*.
- GAMBIA** — The Gambia Red Cross Society, P.O. Box 472, *Banjul*.
- GERMAN DEMOCRATIC REPUBLIC** — German Red Cross in the German Democratic Republic, Kaitzerstrasse 2, DDR 801 *Dresden 1*.
- GERMANY, FEDERAL REPUBLIC OF** — German Red Cross in the Federal Republic of Germany, Friedrich-Ebert-Allee 71, 5300, *Bonn 1*, Postfach (D.B.R.).
- GHANA** — Ghana Red Cross, National Headquarters, Ministries Annex A3, P.O. Box 835, *Accra*.
- GREECE** — Hellenic Red Cross, rue Lycavittou 1, *Athens 135*.
- GUATEMALA** — Guatemalan Red Cross, 3ª Calle 8-40, Zona 1, *Ciudad de Guatemala*.
- GUYANA** — Guyana Red Cross, P.O. Box 351, Eve Leary, *Georgetown*.
- HAITI** — Haiti Red Cross, Place des Nations Unies, B.P. 1337, *Port-au-Prince*.
- HONDURAS** — Honduran Red Cross, 7a Calle, 1a y 2a Avenidas, *Comayagüela, D.M.*
- HUNGARY** — Hungarian Red Cross, V. Arany János utca 31, *Budapest V*. Mail Add.: 1367 *Budapest 5*, Pf. 249.
- ICELAND** — Icelandic Red Cross, Nóatúni 21, 105 *Reykjavik*.
- INDIA** — Indian Red Cross, 1 Red Cross Road, *New Delhi 110001*.
- INDONESIA** — Indonesian Red Cross, Jalan Abdul Muis 66, P.O. Box 2009, *Djakarta*.
- IRAN** — Iranian Red Crescent, Avenue Ostad Nejatollahi, Carrefour Ayatollah Taleghani, *Teheran*.
- IRAQ** — Iraqi Red Crescent, Al-Mansour, *Baghdad*.
- IRELAND** — Irish Red Cross, 16 Merrion Square, *Dublin 2*.
- ITALY** — Italian Red Cross, 12 via Toscana, *Rome*.
- IVORY COAST** — Ivory Coast Red Cross Society, B.P. 1244, *Abidjan*.
- JAMAICA** — Jamaica Red Cross Society, 76 Arnold Road, *Kingston 5*.
- JAPAN** — Japanese Red Cross, 1-3 Shiba-Daimon 1-chome, Minato-Ku, *Tokyo 105*.
- JORDAN** — Jordan National Red Crescent Society, P.O. Box 10 001, *Amman*.
- KENYA** — Kenya Red Cross Society, St. John's Gate, P.O. Box 40712, *Nairobi*.
- KOREA, DEMOCRATIC PEOPLE'S REPUBLIC OF** — Red Cross Society of the Democratic People's Republic of Korea, *Pyongyang*.
- KOREA, REPUBLIC OF** — The Republic of Korea National Red Cross, 32-3Ka Nam San-Dong, *Seoul*.
- KUWAIT** — Kuwait Red Crescent Society, P.O. Box 1350, *Kuwait*.
- LAO PEOPLE'S DEMOCRATIC REPUBLIC** — Lao Red Cross, P.B. 650, *Vientiane*.
- LEBANON** — Lebanese Red Cross, rue Spears, *Beirut*.
- LESOTHO** — Lesotho Red Cross Society, P.O. Box 366, *Maseru*.

- LIBERIA** — Liberian National Red Cross, National Headquarters, 107 Lynch Street, P.O. Box 226, *Monrovia*.
- LIBYAN ARAB JAMAHIRIYA** — Libyan Arab Red Crescent, P.O. Box 541, *Benghazi*.
- LIECHTENSTEIN** — Liechtenstein Red Cross, *Vaduz*.
- LUXEMBOURG** — Luxembourg Red Cross, Parc de la Ville, C.P. 404, *Luxembourg*.
- MALAGASY REPUBLIC** — Red Cross Society of the Malagasy Republic, rue Patrice Lumumba, *Antananarivo*.
- MALAWI** — Malawi Red Cross, Hall Road, *Blantyre* (P.O. Box 30080, Chichiri, *Blantyre* 3).
- MALAYSIA** — Malaysian Red Crescent Society, JKR 2358, Jalan Tun Ismail, *Kuala Lumpur* 11-02.
- MALI** — Mali Red Cross, B.P. 280, *Bamako*.
- MAURITANIA** — Mauritanian Red Crescent Society, B.P. 344, Avenue Gamal Abdel Nasser, *Nouakchott*.
- MAURITIUS** — Mauritius Red Cross, Ste Thérèse Street, *Curepipe*.
- MEXICO** — Mexican Red Cross, Avenida Ejército Nacional n° 1032, *México* 10 D.F.
- MONACO** — Red Cross of Monaco, 27 boul. de Suisse, *Monte Carlo*.
- MONGOLIA** — Red Cross Society of the Mongolian People's Republic, Central Post Office, Post Box 537, *Ulan Bator*.
- MOROCCO** — Moroccan Red Crescent, B.P. 189, *Rabat*.
- NEPAL** — Nepal Red Cross Society, Tahachal, P.B. 217, *Kathmandu*.
- NETHERLANDS** — Netherlands Red Cross, 27 Prinsesgracht, *The Hague*.
- NEW ZEALAND** — New Zealand Red Cross, Red Cross House, 14 Hill Street, *Wellington* 1. (P.O. Box 12-140, *Wellington North*.)
- NICARAGUA** — Nicaragua Red Cross, D.N. Apartado 3279, *Managua*.
- NIGER** — Red Cross Society of Niger, B.P. 386, *Niamey*.
- NIGERIA** — Nigerian Red Cross Society, Eko Aketa Close, off St. Gregory Rd., P.O. Box 764, *Lagos*.
- NORWAY** — Norwegian Red Cross, Drammensveien 20 A, *Oslo* 2, Mail add.: *Postboks 2338, Solli, Oslo* 2.
- PAKISTAN** — Pakistan Red Crescent Society, National Headquarters, 169, Sarwar Road, *Rawalpindi*.
- PAPUA NEW GUINEA** — Red Cross of Papua New Guinea, P.O. Box 6545, *Boroko*.
- PANAMA** — Panamanian Red Cross, Apartado Postal 668, Zona 1, *Panamá*.
- PARAGUAY** — Paraguayan Red Cross, Brasil 216, *Asunción*.
- PERU** — Peruvian Red Cross, Jirón Chancay 881, *Lima*.
- PHILIPPINES** — Philippine National Red Cross, 860 United Nations Avenue, P.O.B. 280, *Manila* D 2803.
- POLAND** — Polish Red Cross, Mokotowska 14, *Warsaw*.
- PORTUGAL** — Portuguese Red Cross, Jardim 9 Abril, 1 a 5, *Lisbon* 3.
- ROMANIA** — Red Cross of the Socialist Republic of Romania, Strada Biserica Amzei 29, *Bucarest*.
- SAN MARINO** — San Marino Red Cross, Palais gouvernemental, *San Marino*.
- SAUDI ARABIA** — Saudi Arabian Red Crescent, *Riyadh*.
- SENEGAL** — Senegalese Red Cross Society, Bd Franklin-Roosevelt, P.O.B. 299, *Dakar*.
- SIERRA LEONE** — Sierra Leone Red Cross Society, 6A Liverpool Street, P.O.B. 427, *Freetown*.
- SINGAPORE** — Singapore Red Cross Society, 15 Penang Lane, *Singapore* 0923.
- SOMALIA (DEMOCRATIC REPUBLIC)** — Somali Red Crescent Society, P.O. Box 937, *Mogadishu*.
- SOUTH AFRICA** — South African Red Cross, Cor. Kruis & Market Streets, P.O.B. 8726, *Johannesburg* 2001.
- SPAIN** — Spanish Red Cross, Eduardo Dato 16, *Madrid* 10.
- SRI LANKA (Dem. Soc. Rep. of)** — Sri Lanka Red Cross Society, 106 Dharmapala Mawatha, *Colombo* 7.
- SUDAN** — Sudanese Red Crescent, P.O. Box 235, *Khartoum*.
- SWAZILAND** — Baphalali Swaziland Red Cross Society, P.O. Box 377, *Mbabane*.
- SWEDEN** — Swedish Red Cross, Fack, S-104 40 *Stockholm* 14.
- SWITZERLAND** — Swiss Red Cross, Rainmattstr. 10, B.P. 2699, *3001 Berne*.
- SYRIAN ARAB REPUBLIC** — Syrian Red Crescent, Bd Mahdi Ben Barake, *Damascus*.
- TANZANIA** — Tanzania Red Cross Society, Upanga Road, P.O.B. 1133, *Dar es Salaam*.
- THAILAND** — Thai Red Cross Society, Paribatra Building, Chulalongkorn Memorial Hospital, *Bangkok*.
- TOGO** — Togolese Red Cross Society, 51 rue Boko Soga, P.O. Box 655, *Lomé*.
- TRINIDAD AND TOBAGO** — Trinidad and Tobago Red Cross Society, Wrightson Road West, P.O. Box 357, *Port of Spain*, Trinidad, West Indies.
- TUNISIA** — Tunisian Red Crescent, 19 rue d'Angleterre, *Tunis*.
- TURKEY** — Turkish Red Crescent, Yenisehir, *Ankara*.
- UGANDA** — Uganda Red Cross, Nabunya Road, P.O. Box 494, *Kampala*.
- UNITED KINGDOM** — British Red Cross, 9 Grosvenor Crescent, *London, SW1X 7EJ*.
- UPPER VOLTA** — Upper Volta Red Cross, P.O.B. 340, *Ouagadougou*.
- URUGUAY** — Uruguayan Red Cross, Avenida 8 de Octubre 2990, *Montevideo*.
- U.S.A.** — American National Red Cross, 17th and D Streets, N.W., *Washington, D.C.* 20006.
- U.S.S.R.** — Alliance of Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies, I. Tcheremushkinskii proezd 5, *Moscow* 117036.
- VENEZUELA** — Venezuelan Red Cross, Avenida Andrés Bello No. 4, Apart. 3185, *Caracas*.
- VIET NAM, SOCIALIST REPUBLIC OF** — Red Cross of Viet Nam, 68 rue Bà-Trìên, *Hanoi*.
- YUGOSLAVIA** — Red Cross of Yugoslavia, Simina ulica broj 19, *Belgrade*.
- REPUBLIC OF ZAIRE** — Red Cross of the Republic of Zaire, 41 av. de la Justice, B.P. 1712, *Kinshasa*.
- ZAMBIA** — Zambia Red Cross, P.O. Box R.W.1, 2837 Brentwood Drive, *Lusaka*.